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EDITORIAL

The League of Nations *Educational Survey* which makes its first appearance before the public in this number is issued in execution of a Resolution passed by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation at its last session and endorsed by the Assembly. This the reader will find reproduced on page 152 below. But in order to understand the purpose that inspired the Resolution and the method adopted in giving effect to it a few words of explanation are perhaps required.

It was at the Assembly of 1923, on the motion of Dame Edith Lyttelton, member of the British delegation, that the League of Nations first concerned itself with the problem of the teaching of the younger generation. The Resolution then adopted has served as the starting-point for all the action subsequently taken and is so concise and definite that it may well be quoted here :

> " The Assembly urges the Governments of the States Members to arrange that the children and youth in their respective countries where such teaching is not given be made aware of the existence and aims of the League of Nations and the terms of its Covenant. "

In 1924, the Assembly went further and instructed the Secretariat to investigate the action which was being taken and to report to the Assembly of 1925. The reports[1] thus prepared were the germ of the present publication.

With these reports before them the Assembly of 1925 decided to take a further step and to draw on the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, thus emphasising at the outset its wish, in any action taken in the educational field, to avoid any suspicion of favouring mere propaganda and to promote the highest educational methods and standards. The Committee was asked to consider the summoning of a sub-committee of experts to go into the whole problem ; at the same time, the problem itself was enlarged so as to cover not simply the teaching of the League of Nations and its Covenant but also the

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[1] Documents A.10 and A.10(*a*). 1925.

question of how " to train the younger generation to regard international co-operation as the normal method of conducting world affairs ".

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation considered and endorsed this proposal and the Sub-Committee, composed of fourteen members, met and in 1927 issued a report[1] which aroused great interest and attained a wide circulation.

One of the recommendations of the Sub-Committee, later endorsed by the Assembly, was that an official centre should be established where information concerning the progress of the work covered by these recommendations would be available. It was suggested that this centre might have two sections, one at Geneva and the other in Paris, at the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, and, in the course of the year 1927-1928, both these sections were organised.

It was soon found, however, that the mere collection of information was far from meeting the need which the experts had in view in proposing the establishment of an Educational Information Centre of the League of Nations.

As the documentary information accumulated at Geneva and Paris, each in its own way, the one through its connections with the Governments, the other as a centre for meetings of unofficial organisations, developed a network of relations in the field of education, the need for some means of making the stores thus gathered more generally available began to be widely felt. It was with this purpose in view that the plan for this periodical was drawn up.

* * *

The scope of the *Survey* was clearly laid down in the Resolution already referred to. It is concerned with the action taken, whether officially or non-officially, to carry out the recommendations of the Sub-Committee of Experts. But a glance at their Report will be sufficient to remind the reader how wide and variegated is the field thus opened up. In planning this issue care has been taken, subject to the limitations of space, to do justice to as many different sides of the subject as possible.

A great part of the space is necessarily devoted to reports from individual countries. Efforts have been made to secure collaborators who are in close touch with the actual work in the

---

[1] *How to make the League of Nations known and to develop the Spirit of International Co-operation* ", Geneva, 1927. 3*d*.

schools. Each writer is, of course, individually responsible for his contribution, reports received from Governments being printed in a separate part of the *Survey*.

It is intended to print in each issue at least one report of a more comprehensive character from a particular country. The country thus selected for this issue was France.

Readers of these reports will doubtless be struck by the great diversity of the educational and other more general conditions revealed in them. It is not simply that the problem of how to teach the League of Nations and international co-operation is faced in different ways in different countries ; it is that, if one may so express it, the League of Nations itself is not the same from country to country. This is perhaps one of the most striking educational discoveries resulting from the work of the Sub-Committee. It has not been uncommon, in certain quarters, to urge the desirability of bringing about a greater uniformity in educational systems and curricula, and even to aim at the production, for general use in the schools of all the world, of standard textbooks in history and relative subjects. No one can read the reports in this issue, with a vivid realisation of the class-room experience which they represent, without feeling that such abstract uniformity is not only practically unattainable but would represent a backward step in educational practice. Children in New Zealand and Japan can never look upon the work done at Geneva with quite the same eyes as their fellows in France, Germany, Italy or Switzerland itself. But even if the difficulty of perspective, due to the fact that the visible centre of the League is in a city of Western Europe, could be overcome, there would still remain the great variety of traditions and habits of mind, so clearly revealed in the reports.

If one of the chief tasks of the educator is to facilitate the harmonisation between the younger generation and the social environment into which it is born, then geography itself, not to speak of the more human sciences and influences, must eternally militate against uniformity. That is the truest and deepest answer to those who are concerned to ensure that international co-operation shall not be cultivated at the cost of national attachments. It is upon the basis of this unalterable diversity between nation and nation that the task, common to them all, of promoting international understanding must be undertaken. Numerous suggestions for the development of this work will be found in the reports. Some of them, such as the exchange of

teachers, have already been under consideration by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. The object of these pages is not to advocate any particular line of policy but to act as a clearing-house for the ideas of others and thus, as it may be hoped, to throw into relief the principal and permanent elements of the problem.

* * *

It will be noticed that the reports printed in this issue are predominantly from European countries. This involves a certain disproportion which it is hoped to correct in subsequent issues. It is certainly not due to lack of effort on the part of those responsible for the *Survey* to secure satisfactory material from non-European countries. It is, however, easy to understand that, without personal visits, such reports are difficult to obtain. Until the opportunity has been provided for relations of this kind to be maintained, the League of Nations Educational Information Centre will never be completely equal to its task or be able to set up the comparative standards which are essential for an adequate survey.

* * *

Part of the issue is devoted, as suggested in the resolution, to articles on special subjects. Chief among these is the analysis, from the pen of a skilled British authority, of an enquiry undertaken by the British League of Nations Union into the effect of war-films upon the mind of children of school-age. This is a subject which has aroused much controversy in Great Britain and elsewhere and the investigation, conducted under the conditions and with the safeguards described in detail in the article, should go far to provide a scientific answer on the question of fact, at least so far as concerns the younger generation in Great Britain. It should be stated that similar enquiries have been conducted by investigators in other parts of England — in Kent and in Oxford — as well as in other schools in the Bradford area, and the results obtained have been practically identical with those set forth by Mrs. Wilson.

It may perhaps be added that the question of the effect of a particular class of films or of other visual arts upon the attitude of young people towards international co-operation is distinct from that of the general educational value of the cinema. This is indeed a matter which also closely concerns the League of Nations, but it does not fall within the scope of this *Survey*.

Another article, that on a summer school for secondary school-children from three nationalities, has been included, in pursuance of the policy of drawing attention to actual first-hand accounts by educators who have made successful experiments on the basis of the experts' recommendations. Much has been said and written recently on the desirability of promoting international relations between school-children, but the difficulty and delicacy of the practical task involved has not always been clearly realised. It is hoped that the technique of Miss Gilpin, in steering a skilful middle course between overstrain on the one hand and *ennui* on the other, may be of interest to others who are framing similar projects.

The brief communication from Professor Holmbäck will perhaps be useful as showing how the experts' recommendations may be applied in institutions of special kinds. Its inclusion must not be taken to mean that the course of League instruction in the particular Naval Academy concerned is unique of its kind ; its value for those who are preparing themselves for the profession of arms is indeed so self-evident that it would be strange if it were not widely realised. Possibly the publication of what is being done in this single case may lead to further information on the subject being made available for these pages.

Another article is devoted to the University side of the experts' recommendations. It is not necessary further to emphasise the importance of the field thus opened up.

* * *

A few words must be added here on a subject to which no special article has been devoted in this issue — the interest displayed and the substantial aid afforded in connection with the experts' recommendations by the chosen representatives of the teaching profession in their international and individual national organisations. It is hardly necessary to restate the self-evident proposition that no educational advance is possible without the wholehearted co-operation of the teachers. If the efforts made and the actual results achieved by the teachers' organisations, especially at the primary and the secondary stage, have nowhere been described in detail in these pages, it is not for want of recognition of the priceless value of their co-operation in the common task.

* * *

One practical demonstration of the possibilities of co-operation between the League of Nations and the teachers has been provided in the last few months by the publication of the special Reference Book intended for their use. The book on "The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations", prepared in accordance with the recommendation of the Sub-Committee, by experts chosen by the Secretary-General, was issued in February last, and, as the sales indicate, has been found to meet a real need. The replies received up to the present time from official sources, in answer to the circular letter printed on page 151, are for the most part, still of a provisional character, but already a number of Governments, such as Australia, Belgium, Colombia, Estonia, France, Hungary, Lithuania, Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, Spain, Switzerland and Venezuela have asked for additional copies, in some cases in considerable numbers, for distribution in schools and school libraries. In other cases, such as those of Italy and Hungary, a translation is contemplated.

In this connection enquiries have been made of the Secretary-General as to the rights of publication. It may be useful to state here that there is no copyright for League publications and that everyone is therefore at liberty to reprint or to translate them, with one sole proviso — that the reprint or translation is scrupulously accurate. The reference book, in a word, is intended to be used, as it stands, but not to be adapted.

* * *

In conclusion, those responsible for the League of Nations *Educational Survey* wish to say that they will welcome information and suggestions bearing upon the execution of the experts' recommendations. They would also express the hope that this publication may not only promote closer contact between those who, in the different countries, are engaged in the work of promoting international understanding through education, but may also enable the League of Nations itself, through its Educational Information Centre and in other ways, to come into closer touch with those who are daily and hourly engaged in the practical task of education.

PART I.

CHILDREN AND WAR FILMS : AN ENQUIRY

Introduction.

Considerable discussion took place recently in Great Britain regarding the effect of war-films on the minds of children and young people and the most contradictory views were expressed by parents, teachers and others, notably at a Conference held to discuss the subject in February 1928. As a result, it was widely felt that there was a need for an impartial investigation, and the Education Committee of the League of Nations Union, together with its Film Sub-Committee, therefore decided to undertake this task.

The following paper tells the story of that enquiry in the schools of Bradford and analyses the effect upon children in that area of the very films " What Price Glory ", " The Big Parade", etc.) to which such violent objection had been expressed in certain quarters. Similar enquiries were conducted for the Union by Dr. Kimmins in Kent, Lincolnshire and Oxford, and the 4,000 replies from children in these areas fully corroborated the conclusions reached in the Bradford enquiry described below.

The specific object of the enquiry was to discover the point of view about war films held by children, as distinct from the opinions of parents and teachers. In particular, it was hoped that it would afford some indication as to whether or no war films tended to create or foster a belligerent spirit. The attached questionnaire was therefore supplied by the League of Nations Union, in June 1928, to certain Education Authorities for circulation in schools.

Amongst the districts selected was the County Borough of Bradford (population 295,000), the centre of the Yorkshire woollen industry. With its highly skilled artisan population and its progressive Education Authority, it offers a field of exceptional interest, and the returns it has sent are as suggestive as bulky. They consist of the replies of 4,022 children from 76 schools.

Action by the Bradford Local Education Authority.

It is clear that the enquiry at Bradford was conducted with noticeable care and impartiality. The Local Education

Authority printed the questionnaire at their own expense, and made every effort to ensure that the views expressed by the children should be entirely their own, uninfluenced by their teachers.

Large as is the number of returns, it has been reached after the careful elimination by the Local Education Authority of unsuitable children. The Director of Education sent a copy of the questionnaire to the head teacher of each school in the area, explaining the object of the enquiry and asking them to find out which children had seen, during the past twelve months or so, any war film. "If you have more than a dozen such children, I think the enquiry in your particular school would be worth while, and, in that event, would you be good enough to let me know how many copies of the questionnaire you would require ?"

The copies sent to each school at the head's request were accompanied by a second letter, as follows :

> "Kindly note that *no guidance* should be given in *any way whatever* to the children. The value of the answers depends entirely upon spontaneity both in observation and expression. Any 'family likeness' in answers will cast suspicion upon the whole of a set. . . .
>
> "If, then, any relevant lessons or talks to the children are likely to give a common trend of expression to the answers, it would be better either to add a covering note to that effect or even to defer setting the questionnaire before the children until the special impression of the lesson has faded.
>
> "If any direct 'lead' in regard to war films has ever been given, the questionnaire should not be set at all, even at a remote date. The answers are worthless unless they convey the unsophisticated impressions of the children".

The replies of the teachers show that they conscientiously complied with these instructions, and a mass of information of unique value is the result. The problem is how to sift and analyse it.

Obviously, the untutored expression of the individual opinions of some 4,000 children, of ages varying from 10 to 17, on a variety of war films, do not lend themselves easily to statistical treatment.

Chapter I.

Methods of Investigation and Numerical Results.

1. *Classification of Schools.*

The first task was clearly to classify the 76 schools, and number the children who had replied to the questionnaire in each.

The schools were classified according to types : Boys, Girls, and mixed, elementary, central and secondary, provided and non provided, Church of England, Roman Catholic and non-sectarian. Then, taken alphabetically, each school was allotted an index number, and every child's paper from each school was marked with the index number of the school and an additional individual number. Thus numbers can be differentiated and compared, and replies can be rearranged in various categories without danger of confusion.

2. *Classification of Films.*

A preliminary survey revealed the number and variety of war films that had been seen by the children. Some children remembered as many as fifteen ; the total number of films mentioned was in the neighbourhood of fifty. It seemed probable that different types of films might produce somewhat different effects. Accordingly, twenty-three of the principal war films named by the children were divided, for purposes of analysis, into six classes, as shown in the table below. War films named by the children, but unconnected with the great war, and little-known films, mentioned only by one or two children, are omitted.

Classification of Films dealing with the Great War.

Classification	Abbreviation used	Names of Films included
1. Dawn	Dawn	The Nurse Cavell Film
2. American Army	A.A.	What Price Glory The Big Parade

Classification	Abbreviation used	Names of Films included
3. British Semi-official	B.S.O.	Arras, Mons, Somme, Ypres, Zeebrugge, Coronel and Falkland Islands
4. German official	G.O.	*Emden* World War through German Spectacles
5. Comic	Comic	Better 'Ole We're Now in the Army Alf's Button
6. Stories of the Great War	Story	Seventh Heaven Four Horsemen of the Apocalypse Mare Nostrum Barbed Wire Flag Lieutenant Tin Hats Wings Mademoiselle from Armentières Roses of Picardy

3. *Classification of Replies.*

The next step was to tabulate under each class of film the answers of each child who chose a film of that class as the basis of his or her replies to questions 3, 4 and 5. Answers based on films not included in the foregoing lists were set aside.

Bearing in mind that the primary object of the enquiry was to find out the effect of war films on the child's view of War, question 5 "What did the film make you think of war?" was taken as the pivot round which the first analysis of replies should turn. The papers of children who completely misunderstood or failed to answer this question were excluded. The preliminary survey had shown that most children, in replying to this question, gave reasons or expressed sentiments in explanation of their opinion. Those most often given were tabulated under general headings, special cases being marked on a separate sheet.

The answers to the two questions: "What do you think of our side?" and "What do you think of the other side?"

(3 and 4 in the questionnaire) were also analysed as being closely connected with the main question, "What did the film make you think of war ?" The intention of these two questions was to discover if war films led the children who saw them to hate the enemy and to judge him unfairly.

The copy of analysis sheets of boys on page 18, for the film "Dawn", will illustrate the method adopted. It will be observed that the sheet is ruled for returns from five schools, each being distinguished by its index number. All the successive sheets for each class of film are similar. Thus the returns of any particular schools or number of schools, on any particular class or classes of films, can be dealt with freely in any desired combination.

4. *Selection of Twenty-five Schools for Experiment.*

When this method of analysis had been devised, it seemed desirable to test it experimentally on a representative section of the total number of Bradford replies. Twenty-five schools were selected : seventeen elementary (of which six were denominational), two central or senior and six secondary. Approximately equal numbers of boys and girls were included in each type. Mixed schools were excluded, so that the effect of each class of film on boys and girls respectively might be noted.

5. *Numerical Results.*

The number of replies from these twenty-five schools totalled 1,739 — a sufficient proportion of the 4,022 replies from the seventy-six Bradford schools to afford a fair sample of the whole. When the replies of children who had selected for comment an irrelevant film (for example "Beau Geste" or "Nelson") had been excluded, and also the replies from those who failed to answer question 5 : "What did the film make you think of war ?" a total of 1,149 — 598 boys and 551 girls — remained for analysis. The total numerical results of this experimental analysis are tabulated on the following sheets, where the headings are similar, but somewhat differently arranged, to those under which the results from each school have been tabulated in relation to each class of film. But here classes of films take the place of the index numbers of schools.

CLASS OF FILM : I. "DAWN" (Sheet 1, Boys).

School[1]		Attitude		War		Reasons against war				Alternative to War	Good in war		Special
Index No. (1)	No. (2)	Unfair (3)	Fair (4)	Pro (5)	Anti (6)	Cruelty horror (7)	Loss of life (8)	Waste (9)	Folly (10)	(11)	Character (12)	Patriotism (13)	(14)
E.1	21	13	5	2	19	11	7	2	—	—	—	3	1
E.2	1	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
S.3	6	1	5	—	6	4	2	2	1	—	—	—	—
C.4	3	—	3	—	3	1	2	1	1	1	—	—	1
S.5	16	1	12	—	16	8	4	6	3	3	—	1	10
Total	47	15	25	2	45	24	15	11	5	4	—	4	12

(1) Five schools *viz* , two elementary, two secondary and one central.

Special Replies. — CLASS OF FILM : I. "DAWN" (Sheet 1, Boys).

School Index No.	Special reasons against war			Critic of film
	Sin	Moral confusion	Loss of trade	
E.1	—	—	1	—
E.2	—	—	—	—
S.3	—	—	—	—
C.4	—	—	1	—
S.5	—	4	2	4
Total	—	4	4	4

Sheet I.

War Film Enquiry in Twenty-five Bradford Schools.

Table I. — Numbers of Boys and Girls who saw Films of Each Class and Their Opinions.

War films in six classes	Number of children who saw each class	Attitude towards the enemy			War	
		Unfair	Dubious	Fair	Pro-war	Anti-war
1. Dawn	196	26	57	113	5	191
2. A.A.	235	36	42	157	6	229
3. B.S.O.	338	43	64	231	24	314
4. G.O.	67	4	7	56	3	64
5. Comic	108	16	20	72	3	105
6. Story	205	33	51	121	8	197
Totals :	1,149	158	241	750	49	1,100
Approximate Percentages	1,149	13 %	22 %	65 %	4.3 %	95.7 %

WAR FILM ENQUIRY IN TWENTY-FIVE BRADFORD SCHOOLS.

Table II. — Analysis of 1,100 *Anti-War Replies.*

(N.B. — In many replies, several of the subjoined points were raised.)

Class of film	Number of children	Criticism of films	Reasons against war							Good in war		Alternatives to war
			Cruelty horror	Loss of life	Waste	Loss of trade	Folly	Sin	Moral confusion	Patriotism	Character	
1	191	20	127	86	50	9	30	10	18	9	4	18
2	229	25	161	100	41	1	34	9	2	7	5	19
3	314	52	212	114	64	9	49	10	1	17	4	27
4	64	5	50	26	16	4	7	1	—	2	6	8
5	105	12	73	37	22	3	16	3	1	3	2	7
6	197	16	159	96	54	3	32	6	2	12	7	11
Totals	1,100	130	782	459	247	29	168	39	24	50	28	90
Approximate percentages of 1,100		11 %	68 %	39 %	21 %	2 %	14 %	3 %	2 %	4 %	2 %	8 %

Chapter II.

Examination of Numerical Results

The Overwhelming Anti-war Majority.

These figures are startling. Out of a total of 1,149 replies to the War Film Questionnaire from twenty-five typical Bradford schools, there are only 49 (4.3 %) classed as pro-war. The remaining 1,100 (95.7 %) are anti-war in various degrees and for various reasons. In other words, the pro-war children are a small minority ; contrary to many people's expectation, they are the exceptions amongst the crowds of children who have seen war films.

Is this so wonderful as it seems at first sight ? The problem is well worth consideration.

Anti-war Influences.

These children have in common a general education on roughly similar lines. Most of them have been taught at school that murder is wrong and that war is an evil, though it is brave and right to fight to defend home and country. These conceptions are the common background upon which the impressions from war films are received. Probably, if without reference to films, the question : " What do you think of war ? " had been asked in any Bradford school, many children, who had never seen a war film, might have said that war is a bad thing, that it kills and maims people, causes much sorrow in families and should not be undertaken except when " inevitable ". Some might have heard of war debts and injury to trade. All these reasons for disapproving of war appear in replies to the Film Questionnaire, but they are not founded merely on information derived from the films. They are often memories called up by the questions about the film and connected in the child's mind with what he saw at the cinema. Teaching about the League of Nations has in some replies evidently suggested alternatives to war for the settlement of disputes. Home influence may perhaps be inferred from the views expressed by some children that all wars result from the greed of rulers or that the invasion of another nation's territory is a sin. None of these statements in the children's replies have been suggested simply by the films

seen. They arise from previous knowledge and may be taken as a reassuring indication of the peace trend of education and public opinion in Bradford since the great war.

If evidence of theoretical anti-war instruction is thus apparent in the replies of many children, despite the precautions taken by the Local Education Authority and the teachers to eliminate all direct school influence in connection with the War Questionnaire (see Introduction), does it lead to the conclusion that the effect of war films on the children's minds has been so slight as to be negligible ? This may appear probable to people who have a strong preconceived opinion that the influence of war films must necessarily be pro-war, or that the cinema is merely a trivial amusement ; but this is not the general impression conveyed by careful examination of the replies to the questionnaire.

The Imaginative Realisation of War.

It is one thing to know about war and be told of its evils, quite another to envisage it as something real and appalling. Moving pictures appeal vividly to the imagination, sometimes with the lure of beauty, sometimes with the thrill of the unknown or unexpected, always with the fascination of movement. They can make things living and real. They are exciting and call forth strong emotion.

It is perhaps difficult for older people to realise what this may mean to future citizens, to whom the great war — to us an undying remembrance — is merely a fact in history, not always reached in their syllabus. We belong to a race that, in its trial stages, less than two thousand years ago, looked on war not as a necessary evil but the crowning joy of life. In those days we revelled in bloodshed. Our idea of Paradise was to drink blood out of the skulls of our enemies. Strength and courage in fighting were our measures of value. It was the vision of the " White Christ " that caught our imagination and modified the character of our ancient dreams of glory. But the merging ideals left us dreaming still of the glory of war " for the right ", as we imagined it to be. Our literature, our history, our art are soaked with that ideal and also with the old glamour of war as war.

The experience of the great war knocked that out of us older people. Since then, war is a discredited word. But children have not gone through the experience that changed

our imaginative outlook. They may be theoretically instructed about the moral and material advantages of peace, and influenced by the anti-war opinions of parents and teachers, but their history text-books are full of the long story of the endless wars of the past, and they are thrilled by poetry from Beowulf to Shakespeare and from Shakespeare to Kipling, which takes war for granted and infuses it with romance. We, looking back, can recognise as a thing of the past the war cult, which so deeply tinges our historical and literary heritage ; but how can children, growing up in this age of transition, realise for themselves that the glories of war are dreams of an age gone by ?

What conception have they of modern mechanical warfare, of war not between armies only but between nations, of war in the air and under the sea, of trench warfare, poison gas, and high explosive, of soldiers fighting blindly against unseen enemies, of masses of men hurled to destruction without a chance to defend themselves, of war which is essentially treacherous and fratricidal ?

Most children think of war as a word for something vague and remote. Many of them have never even seen troops marching, only military bands and a rifle or two. Their personal experiences connected with the great war are limited to celebrations of Armistice Day and flower-decked memorials " to the Glorious Dead ". They know maimed ex-service men, and families where husbands, fathers and sons were lost in the great war, but it is all distant and ill-understood. In a few instances, they may have heard tales, like the boy of twelve, who says, " My father was sleeping in a shell-hole and when my dad woke up his mate had no head on ". But, in the broad sense in which modern warfare is an appalling national and international danger, children have no experience which can enable them even dimly to imagine what it means.

War Films a Revelation.

War films, however censored, modified, doctored or distorted, come to children as a revelation. They are their first glimpse of modern war as a real thing, with human beings actually engaged in warfare, as it was when their fathers were young men. No wonder they are excited and thrilled. It would be strange if this stirring of imagination and emotion left no effect behind. And perhaps it is not so strange, after all, that in so many cases the lasting effect is a sense of the horror of war.

Here are a few examples of what the children themselves say on the subject.

Examples :

A boy of 13, who had seen " The Retreat from Mons " a year and a-half previously, says : " The film made me think that war was not quite so grand as I thought. Up to seeing it I had only a vague idea about war. "

A girl of 12, who had seen " Mademoiselle from Armentières " three months earlier, says : " It made me think that I was really fighting with the soldiers in the war. It made me think that we do not want another war. "

A boy between 14 and 15, who had seen " The Emden " two months before, says : " The film taught me what war is like, but I knew that a lot of what really happened was not shown. Films like this show people how cruel war is. "

A girl of 14, who had seen " Dawn " about three months previously says : " This film made me think that war is a very dreadful thing, but these films are very interesting, showing what really did happen. "

A girl of 14, who had seen " The Better 'Ole " a year before, says : " It made me think of the poor mothers with their sons and husbands in the fight losing their lives for her and the country. It also made you hope that peace would last a long, long time. Yet I think everybody should go and see a war picture in order to get an idea of the fighting. "

A boy between 13 and 14, who had seen " The Battle of Ypres " seven months before, says he remembers best " the incident which I think was one of the most terrible moments I ever had, when an English soldier was shattered to pieces with his horse . . . From what I saw I never want to go to a war like I did before I saw the picture. From what I saw I think that war is one of the most terrible things that could be. I hope war will finish after the Great War. "

A horror of war is noticeable in 68 per cent of the anti-war answers, and even in a few of the pro-war replies ; *e.g.*, a boy of 14, who had seen " The Battles of Coronel and the Falkland Islands " and " Ypres ", thought war " a terrible massacre of men and horse, although I wish to join the Navy ".

The Pro-war Minority.

These forty-nine replies, out of a total of 1,149, fall into two classes :

First, twenty-two little fire-eaters, all boys of 13 or under, and the boy of 14 above quoted — twenty-three all.

Secondly, twenty-six rationalisers or nondescripts, mainly influenced by preconceived ideas. Some of these seem very in little affected by the films they have seen.

Examples of Class I.

A boy of 12, who saw " Ypres " a year and a-half before, also two other war films, and remembers best a " British soldier who went out with a sack over his head and a bomb in his hand " says, " The film made us think that war was real and to carry a gun to make you smart ".

" The war films are exciting ", writes a boy of 13, " and make you think you want to be in it ".

A boy of 10, who had seen " Dawn " a fortnight before, says, " It made me think that war was very exciting and also made me wish I was there, winning medals and great deeds. "

Another boy, aged 13, was so overcome with sympathy for Nurse Cavell that the film (" Dawn ") made him wish to " kill every German alive ". A boy of 13 who had seen " Ypres " eleven months earlier, " would like to be in an English aeroplane dropping out the shells into the German trenches and fighting the Germans in the air ".

A boy of 12, who had seen " The Somme " eight months before, says, " It made me think I would have some fun and become an officer like Earl Haig. We would make many attacks and finish them off. "

A boy between 12 and 13, who had seen " The Better 'Ole ", says, " I would like to be in the tanks shooting as you were going into the German trenches and helping my country ".

So much for the handful of would-be warriors, true descendants of our fighting ancestors.

Examples of Class II.

These replies vary in ability and interest and in the extent to which the films seen have excited any perceptible influence.

A girl of 15, who saw " Mademoiselle from Armentières " six months before, says she remembers best " The actual fighting and when the hero teaches the heroine to play the mouth-

organ ", and she concludes, " As I am young, it filled me with enthusiasm, but if I had lost a son or husband I think I should hate it ".

A girl of 15½ years, who saw " The Emden " two months before, writes a little essay : " War causes strife and misery, famine and death, lack of work and makes a country lose trade, which it is not easy to make up again. War also causes hard work for women who have lost their husbands and sons. The world cannot go on without war as so many countries would wish to become famous ".

A girl of 13, who saw " Barbed Wire " a month before, and had seen four war films, says : " The film made me think of war as a good thing. If our side did want to make peace, the enemy would not. So it is best to have it over with ". She remembers best "where the English were set free on Armistice Day".

A boy of 13, having seen " Ypres " a year before, says : "The film made me hate war but to always fight for my country".

Another boy of 12½, who saw " The Somme " seven months before, says ; " War is horrid because so many lives are lost, but war enables us to gain other possessions ".

A boy of 14, who has seen fourteen war films, and seems somewhat dazed says : " It is not the fault of any man during that war to kill another because the man would be killed if he did not. It is on the whole better without war, and I do not think they should actually drop arms all together ".

A girl of 15 who saw " The Battle of the Somme ", seven months before, says : " The film made me think that peace is a wonderful thing after war, and that it is perhaps best that war sometimes does happen, or else we should take too much for granted and grow selfish instead of sacrificing like the war taught us to do ".

Another girl, between 15 and 16, who saw " The Battles of Coronel and the Falkland Islands ", says : " Many people declare war is wrong. This may be so, but I think that in such cases as the defence of the Falkland Islands war is necessary ".

A boy of 10, who has seen four war films, says : " I don't think I would like to go to war, but we have all to stick to our posts and serve the British Empire ".

School Influence.

It will be noticed that the pro-war replies are by no means stereotyped and that less than half of them are childishly

bellicose. In view of the inevitable influence of school, as well as home, shown in replies to the questionnaire, it may be of interest to trace school influence, possibly less anti-war in some schools than in others, which may have biased the impressions associated by these pro-war children with the films they have seen.

The following tables of the distribution of pro-war children amongst the twenty-five selected schools may be suggestive, taken in connection with the influence of the class of film chosen for comment.

It will be remembered that the selected schools were for boys and girls separately, and that their teachers were men or women respectively. Boys and girls are therefore tabulated separately.

List of Schools showing Distribution of Pro-War Boys.

Boys Schools	Total relevant returns	Pro-war replies	Class of film chosen for comment	Pro-war replies per film
E.1	87	9	1. Dawn	2
			2. A.A.	2
			3. B.S.O.	1
			4. G.O.	nil
			5. Comic	2
			6. Story	2
E.2	41	5	3. B.S.O.	3
			4. G.O.	1
			5. Comic	1
E.6	33	1	3. B.S.O.	1
E.7	55	2	3. B.S.O.	2
E.8	27	No pro-war boys		
E.9(D)	16	5	2. A.A.	1
			3. B.S.O.	4
E.11(D)	34	3	1. Dawn	2
			3. B.S.O.	1
E.12(D)	28	2	3. B.S.O.	2
S.3	113	2	2. A.A.	1
			4. G.O.	1
C.4.	43	1	3. B.S.O.	1
S.5	95	1	3. B.S.O.	1
S.10	26	2	3. B.S.O.	2
Total 12	598	33	—	—

List of Schools showing Distribution of Pro-War Girls.

Girls' Schools	Total relevant returns	Pro-war replies	Class of film chosen for comment	Pro-war replies per film
S.20	151	6	3. B.S.O. 6. Story	5 1
S.22	61	2	2. A.A. 3. B.S.O. 4. G.O.	1 1 1
S.24	118	1	6. Story	1
C.25	55	1	6. Story	1
E.21	14	1	2. A.A.	1
E.23	42	none	2. A.A.	
E.26	21	none		
E.27	11	1	6. Story	1
E.28	18	none		
E.29	12	none		
E.30(D)	19	2	6. Story 1. Dawn	1 1
E.32(D)	10	none		
E.33(D)	19	1	6. Story	1
Total 13	551	16		

Notes. — (D) means " Denominational school ". The comic films (Class V) produced no pro-war girls.

Remarks on Distribution in Schools of Pro- and Anti-War Children.

It is noteworthy that only six of the thirty-three pro-war boys are in secondary schools, including one central school. The remaining twenty-seven come from the eight elementary schools. One elementary school has none. On the other hand, one elementary school has no less than nine ; two others have five each. One of the latter is a denominational school, which has sent only sixteen replies in all.

The pro-war girls, with their small total of sixteen, reverse the distribution of the boys, in as much as eleven come from three secondary schools, and one senior school, and only six from the nine elementary girls' schools, five of which have no pro-war children.

Two-thirds of the pro-war boys (twenty-three) are fire-eaters; all the pro-war girls are rationalisers.

Without labouring the point, where the totals are so small, the difference observable between schools indicated by the foregoing tables does seem to suggest that in some schools, more than in others war films tend to call out a bellicose spirit. Certainly this does not imply that in the former the children are led to think of war, *quâ* war, as desirable. All schools have a large anti-war majority, and, in the very schools from which come most pro-war replies, a good many of the anti-war replies are of the stereotyped sort, which suggests that the children are saying what they think they are expected to say. While we have mass teaching in classes of unwieldy dimensions, the " official reply " will tend to appear, which is one reason why many teachers think questionnaires merely a nuisance.

In the Bradford enquiry, the pains taken by the Local Education Authority, and by the teachers, to see that independent opinions should be obtained, have resulted in a large number of recollections and remarks which strike a note of individuality. Many of the pro-war replies themselves are instances in point, and in the eleven hundred anti-war replies such instances are very numerous. But while a child is at school, his teacher's ways of looking at things must count in his outlook in connection with films, as in other matters. For instance, when a good many children in a school say that the Germans are cowards, without adducing anything seen at the cinema to prove it, and regardless of the particular film chosen for comment, it seems likely that some influence other than moving pictures is behind this consensus of opinion, though the school may not lack a certain modicum of children who express opinions which are obviously their own. Again, with regard to the difficult question of patriotism and war, differences can be detected between various schools in the trend of replies in which the subject is introduced. In some it is dragged in by the head and shoulders, in others it is ignored, and in others dealt with tentatively, quite apart from the film seen.

School influences must be recognised that they may be allowed for and set aside, in endeavouring to estimate the influence of war films on children.

Tests of the Significance of Anti-War Replies.

It is the object of the present enquiry to disentangle the imaginative, emotional influence of moving pictures of war from the thoughts and feelings about war otherwise initiated in the child's mind. A war picture seen by a child is not an image thrown on a blank photographic plate. It exhibits a variety of aspects according to the mental content with which it mingles ; but if it has actually become a part of the child's mentality, it should be distinguishable in his outlook.

There appear to be two main tests whereby the reality of some lasting imaginative effect can be traced in the replies of the children. One is individual expression, indicating that the child is writing what occurs to him in connection with the film, as recalled to his mind by the questionnaire, and not merely what he feels he is expected to say about war. The other is the power he shows of visualising and calling to mind relevant pictures which he has seen on a film days, weeks, months, even years before. Where these qualities mark a reply, it can hardly be disputed that a distinct imaginative impression has been produced.

Parrots and visualisers.

The following examples contrast " Parrot " replies, which mainly consist of stock phrases, with an incident or two from a film thrown in, with answers which clearly indicate that the child has called up memories of relevant visual impressions received from war films and is trying to describe them in connection with his other ideas about war. The questionnaire does not ask for his general ideas on war, but what the film he selects made him think about it, and an attempt to remember and describe relevant war happenings, and not any trivial incident, shows that the purport of the question is understood. In the replies of the children here called " Visualisers " the comments on " Our Side " and on " The Other Side ", as well as the other answers, are directly based on what has been seen in the film.

It must be clearly understood that here, and elsewhere in this report, the words " visualise " and " Visualiser " are employed in their popular sense, and not as technical terms in psychology. It is not inferred thereby that the children were calling up mental images or pictures. Some may have done so

and in others the mental process may have been different, but whatever it may have been, all these children adduce concrete happenings in films they have seen and remembered, which bear directly on the questions they are asked to answer. Individual papers may shade into one another in these respects but a few salient examples will suffice to show a very real difference in imaginative comprehension of what war films reveal about war.

Parrot Examples.

A boy of 11 has seen four war films: "The Battle of Ypres", "Dawn", "The Better 'Ole" and "Alf's Button". He selects for comment the latter, which he saw nine months before. He remembers best " where Alf for the first time cleaned the third button down on his coat and an old servant came ". On our side, " we were forced into the war and it seemed as though we had to fight and at the finish we gained the victory. The other side forced us into the war and they lost the victory. War is a terrible, fearful thing and I hope there isn't going to be another ". It is difficult to judge if this child's ideas about the war were really influenced in any way by the four films, the names of which in three cases he remembers and spells correctly. The fourth he calls "Old Bill", as many children do, after the principal character. Possibly vague memories of war scenes haunt his mind, but are not clear enough for reproduction. As he so clearly remembers Alf's magic button, it seems likely that the visions of warfare resulting from its manipulation also left some imaginative effects, which may contribute to his aversion to war obscured though it is by parrot-like remarks.

The next example, the reply of a boy of 10, shows faint and confused traces of the films seen in ideas he has otherwise acquired about the war. He has seen "Ypres", "Spuds" and "The Better 'Ole", and chooses the latter for comment. He saw it six months before. He remembers that " a man got put in prison and a man makes coffee and puts all the sugar in. Then he makes a big sausage and puts it into a sandwich". Our side "had a long struggle but they won at last. The Germans blew up a picture house, and a great many houses". The other side "did badly and they were nearly all killed and they were cowards and ran away. They (the films) make me think it is cruel and they should stop wars and make peace. Nobody should fight".

A boy of 13, who has seen nine war films, all of which he names correctly, chooses "The Emden" for comment. He saw it three weeks before. "The part of the picture that I remember best is where the *Emden* was sinking merchant ships and when the *Sidney* of England sunk the *Emden*. In the film, Britishers showed the enemy that Britons were not cowards, and those that do things like that the enemy did never win. My thought for the other side is that they could do nothing without doing it cowardly. I think that wars destroy peoples happiness and cause too many deaths, and there should be no more wars". In this reply, the remarks are parrot-like, but it shows somewhat stronger signs of imaginative influence than the other two.

Contrast these three replies with the six replies which follow. Each of the latter, in its own way, indicates a capacity for relevant visualisation, which leaves little doubt that the child's imaginative outlook on war has been enlarged by the moving pictures seen. Moreover, the simplicity of the conclusions rings true.

Visualiser Examples.

A girl of 12 saw "The Battle of Ypres" about a year ago. She best remembers "where the men were in the muddy trenches, and they had no food. One of them went for it and he had to pass a German ' peep-hole '. As he was passing a bullet came through and went through his hat but he was not hurt. I think our men were very brave, because they kept on fighting to the last, whatever befell them. The other men, the Germans, were very cruel. They threw poisonous gas in the air, and in the trenches and our side had to wear masks. It made me think it must have been terrible to go to the war, and perhaps be killed. The men must have been very brave to go".

A boy of 14, who also saw "Ypres" a year before, best remembers "an ambulance preparing to set out to the front when it was found out that the Germans were preparing to bombard it a cavalry man rode some miles under heavy shell fire and succeeded in stopping it. According to this film I think our soldiers fought bravely and wholeheartedly for our country. The Germans were cowardly (some) and trusted mostly to gas and bombs instead of hand-to-hand fighting. War is silly and is only caused by thoughtless people. I think people who cause war should fight the war".

A boy of 13 saw the "Battle of the Somme" about eight months previously, and writes ; "I remember the Anzacs trapped in a wood by the Germans. They were only a handful to the Germans, but the Germans had to retreat. I also remember the first tank going over a German dug-out, crushing everything in its path. I think that the British soldiers and the allies did wonders. Time after time they only saved themselves by miracles, but they always won through. I think that the Germans were good triers, and they killed a lot of men, and took some prisoners. They also had some cunning tricks, which baffled the British for a while. After I had seen 'The Somme', I hoped that there would never be another war. With the picture of dead, dying and wounded it looked horrible".

A boy between 12 and 13 in the same school saw the same film six months ago. He remembers best "when a man won his Victoria Cross. He saw an arm lift up in the middle of the battlefield, so he went out, and found it was his Colonel, so he went back for two men and a machine-gun, and covered them while the men took the Colonel away. Our side fought bravely and had good ideas. They dug a tunnel under the German dug-outs, and laid a wire, and a plug. At a certain time the English would blow up all the dug-outs and trenches of the Germans. The other side were also brave and some came forward to the English trenches, and took prisoners, and they were ill-treated. It was a good film. Many lives were lost while fighting in the Somme. It looked a cruel war and as the people ran over the dead bodies it seemed cruel".

A girl of 14, who saw "Dawn" a month before, remembers "how Nurse Cavell hid the fugitives and how calm she looked when the soldiers were searching the cellar. How she smiled at the guard when she was walking out of the prison to be shot. Our side are very brave and look smart and they smile when they know they are not sure whether they will go back to the friends and relatives. The other side are brave too, because they have the same dangers to encounter and they do not know whether they will ever see their friends again. It made me think how foolish they were to fight one another, and how terrible it must be for soldiers who are forced to go and did not take any part in making it [the war]".

The following are the reflections of a boy of 12 on a film seen the day before.

"I think I remember best the German Commander of the *Emden* being brought aboard the Australian Ship *Sidney*, with

his powder-blackened countenance and suit, or the way he faced his enemies whilst boarding the *Sidney*. I think our side was very brave and valiant, but I do not think they had the vigour which the Germans had in carrying shells when the ammunition lift broke down. But our side was the victors through the wonderful shooting . . . . The Germans were very loyal and they would have carried on whatever had happened. The Germans I think were very clever in their shooting and seamanship. The film made me think of war because of the men being shot down and the guns sending shells on to the other ships, which meant death and destruction, also the scenes of going after helpless passenger ships and shelling them".

The significance of the suggested tests can be seen if they are applied to the answers of the two children who saw "The Emden", one a parrot, one a visualiser, and to the two visualisers, who both saw "Ypres", and the two who both saw "The Somme". It is interesting to note, moreover, that three boys, each of whom bases his comments upon "our side" and "the other side" on the film he saw, and not on preconceived opinions, come from the same secondary school, and the three boys who make parrot comments come from the same elementary school.

The ground seems now clear for a more detailed study of the main body of replies indicating aversion to war.

Chapter III.

The Influence of war Films on the Opinions of Children.

Inadequacies of Numerical Analysis.

A numerical analysis of the replies of 1,149 school-children to the War Film Questionnaire is given in Part I of this report. In Table II, the eleven hundred replies classified as "Anti-war" in Table I are subdivided according to the views they express. As one reply often contains several distinct ideas, these figures in Table II frequently overlap. From the results thus enumerated, only one broad conclusion can be confidently drawn: the children classed as anti-war have certainly not been led to wish for war by the war films they have seen.

This applies even to a negligible fringe of Laodiceans, whom it was difficult to place.[1]

Thus far, the numerical results obtained by the questionnaire are definite: these children all regard war with aversion. But when their replies are closely examined, they reveal every shade of repulsion, from emotional horror to cool contempt. They give a diversity of reasons, and express views which vary from the urgent need to abolish war at all costs to the desirability of entering upon it with circumspection. Until this confused mass of childish opinion is further disentangled and examined in detail, its significance is difficult to ascertain or estimate.

Unmistakable Traces of the Influence of War Films in Children's Replies.

In the tabulated numerical analysis, all replies have necessarily been taken at their face value. The sub-headings merely indicate salient features in the replies, classed according to the type of film selected for comment; this affords no criterion of the extent to which they, or any other war films, have really influenced the children's opinions. The principal object of the following detailed analysis of replies, classed according to the main ideas they express, is to demonstrate by typical examples the influence actually exercised by the films seen. The sub-

[1] Examples of Laodicean replies may be found under the sub-heading of Patriotism.

headings cover those used in the numerical tables, but are wider in scope and arranged in somewhat different order.

The nine replies analysed as test examples under the cross-headings "Parrot examples" and "Visualiser examples", in Part II of this report, seem to show conclusively that recollection of things seen in moving pictures is traceable even in the most stupid "official" replies, while in the replies of children with greater power of visualisation it is the predominating factor. Therefore, the influence of films on a child's imagination can be detected, and to some extent measured, by examining his reply for evidences of visualisation. While children are writing down the titles of films they have seen and the incidents they best remember, there can be no doubt that the films are present to their minds, and, directly or indirectly; influencing the expression of their opinions. In those replies which show freedom in self-expression, the effect of the films is often unmistakable, though it may be mixed with other elements of personal experience, for, of course, the children have seen and thought about the films through the medium of other influences.

Illustrative Examples.

No child's reply is quoted more than once in any part of this report.

Examples are taken from replies of boys and girls of different ages, in all types of school and refer to each variety of war film classified.

At the risk of being tedious, a few of these illustrative examples give a child's answers to the whole questionnaire, to indicate how far the imaginative influence of films he has seen permeates his general attitude. This is specially interesting where the reply raises points not immediately suggested by a visual impression.

Abbreviation of the Questionnaire.

When a complete reply is quoted, the questions are not reproduced, but the information is put down in the following order: Boy (or girl), age, title of film chosen for comment, when seen, titles of other war films seen, the incident in the selected film which the child remembers best. This and his other answers are given in his own words. When vague repetitions or irrelevant remarks are omitted, the omission is

marked by dots. When essential words in an answer have been left out, they are inserted in brackets.

WHAT WAR FILMS MAKE CHILDREN THINK OF WAR.

I. *The Horror and Cruelty of War: the Suffering and Loss of Life it causes: Sorrow and Bereavement at Home.*

These repulsive concomitants of war hang together in many children's minds as a result of seeing war films. One or several of these reasons are given by 780 boys and girls out of 1,100 for their aversion to war, whether they give other reasons or not. Such aspects of warfare are to be found in all war films. The interesting fact is that so many children pick them out for comment from long series of exciting scenes, full of thrilling incidents of many sorts.

A sense of the suffering caused by war will appear in many replies quoted under other headings in this analysis and numerous examples have already been given in Part II. A few other typical answers are added here.

Examples.

Boy of 11, "The Better 'Ole", six months before: "I remember where some men were marching down a trench, called 'Whiz Bang Alley', when a shell came over and killed most of them. Our side were not as cruel as the German side. It showed where one British was caught and he struck a match to light a cigarette and a German stuck a bayonet through him. The German side were always ready for any attacks when the British made them. The Germans were good fighters as well as the British. War is a very terrible thing. For some men never come home, some lost eyes, arms, legs, and others came home with a lost memory".

A girl of 13, "The Seventh Heaven", the story of which is French, three weeks before, ("Ypres", "The Better 'Ole"): "The young man and the young woman had just been married [in Paris] then the sound of trumpets and the tramp of feet was heard, then he knew he had to go to the war. Our side fought bravely for their own country, although many lives were lost and much blood shed. They thought of nothing but to get home to their wife and children. The other side fought bravely for their own country as well and strove to try and win so as to gain victory for their country. How cruel and horrible it was. And how awful it must be on a field

among maximum guns and bombs and bodies of men strewn about ".

A girl of 16 who had seen "What Price Glory?", six months before says: "The film made me think that war is very cruel. It spoils lands and tears husbands from their wives and sons from their mothers. All the glory and honour attributed for brave deeds and loss of life cannot atone for the distress it has caused."

Evidently the tragic aftermath of war still exists in these children's homes and the films they see help to explain its existence.

A boy of 13, who saw "The Battles of Coronel and the Falkland Islands", a fine naval film, full of exciting incidents, says it made him think that war did not do much good, " only made mothers unhappy ".

" War is nothing but bloodshed and killing each other. It is a very serious thing for men to get crippled for life and thousands get killed ", says a boy of 12, who had seen the " Battle of the Somme ".

" Some people want war, but give me peace ", says a boy of 13, who had seen seven war films. " To see men being killed in hundreds, blown to pieces, makes me feel sick of it all ".

II. *The Devastation caused by War.*

Some children are impressed by the destruction of towns and villages and the desolation of the countryside as shown in war films.

Examples.

A boy of 14, " What Price Glory ? ", three months before, ("Dawn"): "The thing I remember best about the film is the bursting of the shells, and the houses and soldiers being forced up into the air. . . . What I think of war is that it is a terrible thing because millions of men, women and children lost their lives, and that land and buildings are destroyed. "

Girl of 13, who had seen two war films, thinks war " very cruel because houses were ruined, and very often people who had no connection with the war were homeless and sometimes killed ".

A girl of 15, "The Battle of Ypres", ten months before ("Barbed Wire", " The Last Frontier "). She remembers "how the army entered Ypres, a beautiful town, and how, when they

left it, there was no beauty, but destruction. Everything was in ruins, even the beautiful old church ". War " is the worst kind of possible destruction to humanity and country. Even though victories are gained the loss to the country is tremendous ".

"War is horrible", says a girl of 13, who saw "Ypres" "when men are slaughtered wholesale and the countryside is made a place of devastation".

A boy between 13 and 14, who had seen "The Better 'Ole", "Ypres" and "What Price Glory?" says: "I think that war is absolute destruction, both to towns and living people. Many hard-working people have had their life savings destroyed by shells, such as their house being destroyed. Sons were called out never to come back again ".

III. *Waste of Men and Money and Injury to Trade.*

Some children incline to a hard-headed point of view, and scenes showing the havoc of war lead them to think of the losses, pecuniary and other, which it entails. Two hundred and forty-seven children, out of 1,100 (21 per cent), mention the economic waste involved in war.

Loss of trade caused by the war is a sore subject at Bradford, the centre of the heavy woollen trade, all the more so because material for soldiers' clothing was made there during the war. Temporarily the woollen trade boomed and workers from elsewhere were attracted to the town and district, as they were to the munition works of Sheffield, only to be left in the lurch when trade declined after the war was over. The loss of trade as a consequence of war — very possibly a result of their family experience — is connected by 2 per cent of the children with their visual impressions of destruction and waste received from films.

Examples.

Girl of 12, "Dawn", three months before ("Tell it to the Marines", "Mademoiselle from Armentières", "The Better 'Ole", "What Price Glory?", "Hill 60"). She remembers " the death of Nurse Cavell. The helpfulness of the women in the children's hospital before the war began. The smuggling of the prisoners across the frontier. The prisoners in the cellar of the hospital. . . The Germans do not keep their promise, because they harmed Belgium during the great

war. . . I think that war is a terrible thing and leads men to destruction. It is a hindrance to trade, if [lost] in after years, and is a greater hindrance to trade for countries during the war who do not manufacture woollen goods or firearms."

Boy between 12 and 13, "Zeebrugge", eleven months before ("Mons", "Ypres", "The Somme", "What Price Glory?", "Barbed Wire", "The Better 'Ole", "Tin Hats", "The Gay Retreat"). He remembers best "when the British submarine blew up the bridge and let the British destroyers enter the base . . . The film I saw makes me think what a horrible thing war is. The lives and ships that are lost is so great. The war has to be supplied with guns and it costs a dreadful lot. All the lives are thrown away for nothing."

Boy of 13, who had seen "What Price Glory?" and three other war films, says: "In my mind was planted a picture of the great amount of money which went west in smoke and noise, and also the heroic bravery of the Allies".

A boy of 14, who has seen eight war films, thinks that "war was a great loss of innocent lives, who had nothing to do with the quarrel, through famine, starvation, fire and guns. After the war the trade and the value of money fell".

A boy of 13, who has seen seven war films, thinks "our men were very noble to go and protect England, but if the younger ones had not been so daring less would have been killed. They were worked up so much that they seemed to like to kill one another". The other side "were men who had been forced to leave their work and daily routine just to satisfy the greed of one man. Why could not the two Governments come to a settlement by talking, rather than cripple a nation and spoil its trade".

IV. *The Glory of War.*

The sense of horror and pity and of the losses entailed by war does not altogether exclude the feeling that there is something tremendous about it, which in its way is splendid. Some children are interested in the diversity of their own impressions from the films they have seen.

Examples.

Girl of 15, "What Price Glory?", four or five months before ("Roses of Picardy"). She remembers "the quiet peace

and then the sudden declaration of war. War on every lip. The farewells. Then the grim [realisation] of war. Muddy trenches; comrades shot before their fellows' eyes Then peace. . . .. . [War is] a ghastly horrible thing, which seems to snare men and eat them up without any feeling, guns, dead bodies, prisoners, flashes, mud and fatigue and then the glorious feeling of victory and peace ".

A girl of 14, who saw the same film, says it made her think war "dreadful. A worse thing surely cannot happen to a country. Yet we are proud of it afterwards ".

A boy of 13, who had seen eight war films, says : "Our side showed plenty of grit and courage and like our ancestors who defeated the Armada. Naturally, I do not think [the other side] as good as ourselves. A mixture of good and bad. It [the film] gives you some idea of what the war was like and leaves an impression in your mind, but besides the glory you see the horrors of war also ".

A boy between 12 and 13, who had seen six war films, says : " It made me think of war as an awful but fascinating thing ".

V. *The Religious Point of View.*

The idea that war is sinful is definitely expressed by thirty-eight children out of 1,100 (3 per cent). Only three of these are at denominational schools, where religious instruction is given in accordance with the tenets of a Church. The idea of the wickedness of war appears to be the result of home influences. The children have connected the terrible happenings seen in the pictures with the robbery and murder they have learnt to regard as displeasing to God.

Examples.

Boy of 13, "Battles of Coronel and Falkland Islands", six months before ("Zeebrugge", "Ypres"). He remembers best " the handshake of the German Commander and his chief mate, when they realised that they had been beaten, and that their last few moments of life had come. Though the Germans were wicked and cruel, our side was in cases quite as bad. But the majority of ' Tommies ' were not the men to kill for the love of it. I think that most Germans were brave, but their commanders had no respect for the number of

lives that would be lost in their undertaking certain adventures. I think war is terrible and wicked, which brings no result but the ruination of the countries which engage in it".

A boy of 14, "The Somme", eight months before ("Ypres"): " Men were sent mad by the guns. There was a great deal of pain and wounding. The want to kill took hold of a great many men. . . I think war is a terrible thing and should not exist among Christian nations. In 'The Somme' war appeared as a machine for killing mankind ".

A boy of 12, at another school, says : "'The Somme' made you think that God had left humanity to the terrible war machine ".

A girl of 14, who saw " Dawn " three months before, says : " It made me hate war. War is the most unchristian thing which so-called Christians ever do ".

VI. *War and Human Character.*

Some children take a very different point of view and see in war a revealer of character, an opportunity, horrible though it be, for men to show their mettle and develop their higher powers (twenty-eight children out of 1,100 = 2 per cent).

Examples.

A girl between 15 and 16, "Dawn", four months before ("The Better 'Ole"), remembers best the scene in Nurse Cavell's cell when, after partaking of the Last Supper, she and the priest sang a hymn. " Our side in that film seemed to have for their motto, ' Not for self, for all '. For Nurse Cavell and her helpers aided and nursed [all] who held a high or low position in the army . . . Although many lives are lost in war, it shows the real side of man . . . . "

A girl of 14, who had seen five war films, says : "War is ruinous to trade, health and honour. Too many lives were lost for war to be a good thing . . . Thousands of homes were wrecked, but both sides were as bad. It brings out bravery in a man to keep England in her position in the world, and there is something to be said for the inspiration of war to join in the tumult and passionate struggle."

War " is very disasterous ", says a boy of 14, "and should be avoided whenever possible. It also makes me admire the ones who died for others' sake."

Girl between 15 and 16, " What Price Glory ? " a month ago (" Battle of Jutland ", " Seventh Heaven ", " Every Mother's Son ", " The Unknown Warrior ", " Tin Hats ", " Gay Retreat ", " Remembrance "). She remembers " the billeting of the British soldiers at the various inns . . . The scene in the trenches, one of the soldiers going completely mad and demanding, ' What price glory now ? ' . . . Our side was very patriotic, brave and dauntless, nevertheless many of them were reluctant to carry on a war which meant disaster for the whole world, to fight individually and kill men who had never done them any harm . . . War was made hideous in many of the scenes . . . Many friendships, however, were made and weaklings converted into men. "

A girl of 12, who had seen two war films, thinks that " War was a great destroyer, [but] it often makes great men out of brave boys. "

A girl of 12, who saw the " Retreat from Mons ", says : " War is very terrible, although it brings to light what man can do. "

A boy of 14, who had seen " Ypres ", " Mademoiselle from Armentières " and " The Somme ", says that the film made him think that " war is a cruel thing for men ; it is also a waste of money. There was one thing it did good, and that was, quicken the mind of inventors and bring out many new inventions. "

VII. *Moral Problems in War.*

A few children — twenty four out of 1,100 — have realised that war poses insoluble problems of right and wrong. Eighteen of these have chosen " Dawn " for comment. This film was intended by its author, Captain Berkeley, to put before the public the cruel perplexity of conflicting loyalties inseparable from warfare.

Examples.

Boy between 12 and 13, " Dawn ", two months before (" What Price Glory ? ", " Rookies "). " The part I remember best is the moment when a German officer is searching Nurse Cavell's hospital, and just as he is moving away from an invisible door into a cellar a British soldier sneezes. The German listens for a minute then goes away. Our side was very brave and feared nothing. The only fault I think is the fact that

they thought the Germans cruel to shoot Nurse Cavell ; but, had she been a German and captured by our side, she would have been shot also . . . The film ' Dawn " made me think that war is absolute nonsense, because thousands of lives are lost in satisfying one country's ambition or one country's jealousy against another. After all, both sides are worse off after a war than when they started."

A boy of 14, who had seen six war films, says about " Dawn " : " The other side, I thought, did not want to execute Nurse Cavell, but it was the duty of war. War is a thing which brings misery and desolation to many. War is also cruel and merciless. When people are in war's clutches they have to carry out war's orders and not your own. "

Girl of 12, " Dawn ", six weeks before (" Blighty ", " The Emden ", " Ypres ") : " The most appealing part of the film to me is how Nurse Cavell assisted the starving soldiers to the frontier heedless of her own danger and how she was betrayed in the end by an unworthy soldier. Although we think it unloyal and wicked of the Germans, we cannot have tasted half the sorrow and bitterness of those who shot her. "

A girl between 11 and 12, in another school, who saw " Dawn ", says : " I remember, and shall never forget, [how] bravely Nurse Cavell stood up and told the truth and faced her death sentence without a murmur. I do not think our side would have committed such a terrible crime, [but] it would have been very trying for us to let her go on like she did. The other side were very cruel to do that, but, still, they wanted to win, and it was hindering the German Government just as it would have done us. I thought war was a terrible fault of the world. It is much worse than what we think. I am very glad I was not old enough to understand when war was raging. "

VIII. *Fairness to the Enemy.*

Attitude towards the enemy is characteristic of all replies to the questionnaire, whether they are classed as pro- or anti-war. The figures concerning it appear in Table I at the end of Part I of this report. Out of the total number of 1,149 replies, only 158 (13 per cent) were decidedly unfair, 750 (65 per cent) were fair, and 241 (22 per cent) were too vague for classification. Some pro-war children are quite fair to the enemy.

In the questionnaire, the questions : " What do you think of our side ? " and " What do you think of the other side ? "

were asked to find out if war films rouse or foment hostility to Germany. But the children have generally understood them as a request for their moral and sometimes their military judgment on the motives and behaviour of both combatants ! The results are interesting. The criteria, some or all of which most children apply, are courage, self-sacrifice, fairness in fighting, patriotism, and kindness or mercy to comrades and to the enemy. These qualities are, of course, estimated more or less in accordance with the moral standard inculcated at home and at school, which each child applies in his own way to what he sees on the film. The replies have been tabulated as " Unfair " or " Fair ", according to the child's willingness or refusal to admit the virtues he admires in the enemy when the film exhibits them. A great many replies indicate a very real sense of fair play and the general impression conveyed by the answers is that, in so far as children are influenced mainly by the films seen, they tend to be fair. " Parrots " are more likely to give unfair replies than " visualisers ". Certainly, the war films themselves cannot be charged with producing anti-German feeling. The critical attitude of some children to war films in this respect will be dealt with in the following section.

The replies quoted in full under other headings in this analysis afford so many examples of attitude towards the combatants that it is needless to quote more than two illustrations here. One is an extreme instance of unfairness and stupidity, with apparently no power of visualisation from an anti-war reply. The other is an example of fairness in a pro-war " fire-eater ".

Examples.

Girl of 11, "What Price Glory?", two months before (" Behind the Front "). She does not say what she remembers. " Our side were very brave, and always ready to fight for their king and their country. They were not cowards. The enemy were cowards, and would rather have their wives and children killed than themselves. War is not a very pleasant thing, because many are wounded and killed in it."

Boy between 12 and 13 " Ypres ", two months before ("What Price Glory ?"). He remembers best "Where the English soldiers were running across the battlefield with the brave officer at the front of all the regiment. [Our side] were brave and they did not even run when the great, big German

tanks came along. Some [of the other side] were brave, and they stopped and fired as the English charged them. " The film made him think that " I would like to go to war and fight the Germans and guard our own country from other enemies ".

IX. *Criticisms on War Films.*

Amongst the anti-war returns there are a hundred and thirty, viz., 11 per cent of the whole number, in which the children criticise the war films they have seen. Many, probably most, of these children are habitual cinema-goers, and to some of them a film is a work of art to be examined on its merits. Children who go to the pictures at least once a week are keen and practised observers, whose experimental knowledge of films would put out of court most of their would-be moral advisers. How seriously films are taken is shown by the wonderful recollection manifested in the replies of the names of films seen months, even years, previously ; difficult names, such as " Mademoiselle from Armentières " or the " Four Horsemen of the Apocalypse ", usually being correctly spelt.

The elder children, at all events, are well aware that moving pictures are photographs of scenes frequently artificially constructed, where the people are actors playing a part. Several children who have selected " The Better 'Ole " for comment in replying to the questionnaire mention the principal character not as " Old Bill " but as Syd Chaplin, Charlie Chaplin's brother, who acted the part of " Old Bill ". A little girl writes about the heroine of " Mademoiselle from Armentières ", " who was really Estelle Brody ". Children pride themselves on acquaintance with cinema stars. This knowledge of impersonation and make-believe leavens the imaginative effect produced by a film on the screen much as it leavens the impression conveyed by a play on the stage. Most theatre-goers content themselves with enjoying a play as " a mirror held up to nature " ; a few look at it critically as the good or bad performance of certain players. It is much the same with the effect of war films on different children. Most of them seem thrilled by the realisation of war, some others are critical of the sincerity of the reproduction. They think that it gives an unreal impression of war or that it is offensively pro-British. A few consider the war films they have seen as such inferior " Pictures " that they should be scrapped, but this is exceptional.

Children's criticisms are, of course, crude. It is noticeable that they fail to distinguish between war films prepared under the auspices of the British Admiralty and War Office and the German Government from feature films of American origin. Scarcely any children have discovered that in " What Price Glory ? " and " The Big Parade " the soldiers are not English but American troops.

The film critics here cited to illustrate their position are all visualisers, whose replies indicate recollection of films selected for comment. Therefore, strictures only are quoted, except in the first example.

Examples.

Boy between 15 and 16, " The Battle of the Somme ", about five months before. (" Ypres ", " Zeebrugge ", " The Battles of Coronel and the Falkland Islands ") : " The best thing I remember about this film was the part where the English soldier, blinded with shells, tumbled into a shell-hole and perished. In the war film our side was the outstanding side as far as courage and stamina went, but that is only natural, as it was produced by an English company. The other side was never shown in the same prominence as ours, except once or twice, but I suppose they were as courageous and good as our own side. It showed one what an awful thing war is, but the film cannot put one in the midst of the battle, or one would never want to go or hear of it again. "

Boy between 13 and 14, " Ypres ", a year and three months before (he has seen eight war films) : " I think that, surely, the Germans fought far better in the real war than what they did in this picture. "

Boy of 12, " The Battles of Coronel and the Falkland Islands ", seven months before (" Zeebrugge ", " Barbed Wire ", " Mademoiselle from Armentières ", " What Price Glory ? ") : " War is terrible and the films cannot make it look as bad as it was. "

Boy of 14, " The Better 'Ole ", two months before ("Spuds", "Ypres", "Roses of Picardy", "Tin Hats") : " I think that the Germans are made to resemble worse men than they really were and our men to look like angels . . . Remember we are all human beings. "

Girl of 15, " Dawn ", three months before (" The Big Parade ", " Seventh Heaven ") : " The films, by showing so

much of our side, make people very narrow-minded about the war. The English and their allies appear on the films to be most heroic, while the Germans receive all the blame of the war . . . " Dawn " was the only film where the Germans were treated properly. "

" There are other better pictures than war films ", says a boy of eleven, who has seen six of them, and thinks the film he comments on " very thrilling ".

The superciliously critical attitude of a few children in two or three secondary schools suggests the pose of a small gang. It is certainly in marked contrast to the general effect of war films on the majority of the children, in these and other schools, who have answered the questionnaire. The general consensus of opinion seems nearer to the point of view of a girl of 15, who had seen four war films, and says that " Dawn ", on which she is commenting, made her think that " war is a cruel, unnecessary evil, and that if films continue to bring forth the horrors people will not let there be more wars. "

X. *Patriotism.*

War films set children thinking about the practical significance and implications of patriotism, the greatest problem of citizenship in the modern world. Many of them have evidently been taught that it is a splendid thing to fight and die for king and country, and most of them are fired with a generous admiration for those who willingly sacrificed themselves in the great war ; but both theory and feeling conflict with the very real repulsion to war inspired by war films, and also with peace teaching received at home and at school. How are these opposing conceptions to be brought into harmony ? Both parents and teachers, like other citizens, are liable to take different views of right and wrong where the supposed welfare of their own country is concerned ; for may not opposition to war be the truest patriotism ? When their elders disagree, what are the children to think ?

In replying to the query in the questionnaire : " What did the film make you think of war ? " only fifty children out of 1,100 (4 per cent) mention patriotism as a justifiable cause for fighting. But this does not adequately cover the expression of childish opinion on the subject, as revealed in the replies. In the appreciations of " our side " and " the other side ", militant patriotism continually appears as a moral virtue, and

British and Germans alike are praised for fighting bravely, each for their own country. Many replies already quoted under various headings illustrate the admiration for belligerent patriots, coupled with horror of the cruelty of the fight.

It is very interesting to see how different children face the conflict of ideas. Some make no attempt to co-ordinate them. Some find a solution in thinking that war is unjustifiable except in national self-defence. Some suggest that war is so stupid and wasteful that (by inference) it is always contrary to national interest. Some say decidedly that there must be no more war on any pretext. Examples of the three last types of reply are given under headings XI, XII and XIII. The following answers illustrate an indeterminate attitude of mind.

Examples.

Boy of 13, " Mons ", five months before (" The Somme ", " Barbed Wire ", " The Better 'Ole ") : " War makes you feel sorrowful to think that people of flesh and blood like ourselves are shot or stabbed, to think that brothers and fathers might be living if there had been no war. But they fought for our country and us."

Girl of 14, " The Four Horsemen of the Apocalypse ", two or three years before. The film made her think war " very heartwrenching, gives you an impulse to do something for our country. For the girls to nurse the wounded, etc., and the boys to do their best. "

Boy between 13 and 14, "What Price Glory ?", four months before ("Dawn", "The Somme", "Mons", "Second to None", "Tin Hats") : "I think that war is a very horrible thing and is all a useless waste of life, but in some cases a good, brave thing to give your life for your country."

Girl of 14, " Roses of Picardy ", three months before ("Mademoiselle from Armentières", "What Price Glory ?", " Blighty ", " The Four Horsemen of the Apocalypse ", " The Big Parade "). She remembers best the " war scenes, when the men went over the top. The state they were in when they came out of the trenches . . . The soldiers acted very bravely in times of great danger and showed the other nations what England could do. [On the other side] most of the men were almost as brave as the English, and fought like our soldiers for their native land. [War is] very terrible and dangerous, but necessary sometimes to keep England free."

Note. — This final example may also serve as an illustration of borderline replies between pro and anti-war and the difficulty of classifying these Laodiceans as one or the other (see the footnote on page 35).

XI. *War is unjustifiable if it can be avoided.*

Many children of all ages say that the films made them hope there would be no more war. Some of them say that war is never justifiable except in national self-defence.

Examples.

Boy of 11, "Ypres", eight weeks before ("Dawn", "The Flag Lieutenant", "The War Horse"). He remembers "when a British aviator flew over a German airship which was following a British plane and bombed it." The film made him think that war "was a cruel thing and should not be waged unless it was to defend the country."

A boy of 11, who has seen six war films, says : "I think war is a horrible thing, but it is always necessary to keep an army in case of a war."

Boy of 12, "Dawn", two months before ("Ypres", "Spuds"). He remembers "the execution of Nurse Cavell. We were compelled to fight by the horrid old Germans. They are a bloodthirsty lot, and do not care who they kill or get hold of. War is a very terrible thing and ought to be avoided if possible."

Girl between 13 and 14, "The Better 'Ole", two months before ("What Price Glory ?", "Mademoiselle from Armentières") : "I think that our side was just as cruel as the other side, although they did perfectly right in fighting for their country. The other side started the war, therefore they were worse than the English. I think that war is a terrible thing and that for the sakes of women and children fighting should be stopped. Men are doing the right thing to fight for their country if another country starts the war."

"The war film ('The Four Horsemen of the Apocalypse') "made me hate all wars", says a boy of thirteen, "but always to fight for my own country."

XII. *War is Folly.*

No less than 168 children out of 1,100 (14 per cent) are struck by the futile stupidity of war. Some connect it with economic loss ; some with the greed and ambition of rulers ; some content

themselves with saying that it is silly to throw away human life or wealth or both and gain nothing thereby. It will be said that such ideas are acquired from their elders ; so are the ideas of patriotism or of loss of trade. All such generalised conceptions are the outcome of a child's experience in the company of older persons, but it does not follow that he does not think the same in his own childish way, and it does not make less real or less interesting the imaginative effect of films in recalling these ideas in connection with a vivid mental picture of warfare. The cinema suggests and drives home lessons in politics and economics as well as in morals.

Examples.

Boy of 11, "The Somme", eight months ago ("The Four Horsemen of the Apocalypse", "Second to None", "The Better 'Ole") : "I remember best the picture of the first tank going into action, and the fright it gave the men . . . The film made me think that war is an awful thing, and that folk who try to cause it are very silly indeed."

Boy of 13, "The Emden", six weeks before ("Mons", "The Big Parade", "Barbed Wire", "Ypres", "The Somme") : "The part I remember best was the final battle of the *Emden*, with the Australian battleship H.M.S. *Sydney*, at a wireless station called Coco Island. Some of the actual sailors took part in the film. The English sailors were men of grim determination. The Captain of the ship was a good sportsman . . . said that the German Captain could keep his sword . . . The [German] Captain and sailors were game fighters to the end. The boatswain kept firing his gun till he died, although he had an arm blown off by a shell. The picture made me think that war is nonsense. One country goes to war to gain power and fame, just to satisfy a man whom they call a king. Thousands and thousands of men died just to please a king who wanted power, that king was the Kaiser."

Boy of 14, "The Better 'Ole", three months before ("Mons", "Tell it to the Marines"). He thinks "war is an uncivilised part of human nature. It causes an enormous decrease of population. The men who announce war should fight the war."

Another girl of 15, who has seen three war films and remembers best, in the "Battle of Ypres", "how terrible it must have been for those who took part", thinks "that war

is foolish and should be settled by governors of the country and not for thousands who have nothing to do with it to lose their lives in settling it."

A boy of 14, who saw "Mademoiselle from Armentières" a year before, remembered "the system by which the enemy outposts signalled to the air scouts by means of diagrams on a ploughed field". He thinks that "war is a disease, manufacture of implements to destroy peace. The training of men to destroy life is a terrible mistake".

A boy of 13, who had seen six war films, thinks war "a mere tragedy. Most men did not know what they were fighting for".

XIII. *Never Again.*

If war is so horrible, why should there be any more wars? This is a natural question in the unsophisticated mind of a child, who sees war films, unless he is one of the minority born fighters, who, when they see any scrap, feel impelled to join in. Children who do not connect warfare with acquired ideas, such as patriotism and political necessity, cannot understand why it should happen any more, now that we know how much harm it does. They feel like the boy and girl in Southey's poem, who lived in a cottage on the old battlefield of Blenheim and found a skull in the garden. Their grandfather told them about the soldiers who fell in the great fight and that "many thousand bodies here lay rotting in the sun":

> "'Great praise the Duke of Marlboro' won,
> And our good Prince Eugene.'
> 'Why, 'twas a very wicked thing!'
> Said little Wilhelmine.
> 'Nay, nay, my little girl', quoth he,
> 'It was a famous victory.'"

Peterkin asks:

> "'But what good came of it at last?' . . .
> 'Why that I cannot tell', said he,
> 'But 'twas a famous victory.'"

Many Bradford children think much like Wilhelmine and Peterkin, and the glamour of a famous victory is no longer all-sufficient to condone the horrors of war, even in the eyes of their grandfathers.

Examples.

Boy of 10, "The Seventh Heaven", two months before ("The Better 'Ole"). He remembers the "French soldiers had heavy tanks of gas on their backs, and they had hose pipes which, when they turned the gas on, out of them came liquid fire . . . It made me think war was a dreadful thing and ought to be stopped."

Girl of 12, "Dawn", three months before. ("The Flag Lieutenant", "The Better 'Ole"): "I remember most clearly the night before the dawn on which Edith Cavell went to her death; and the calm, courageous way in which she walked to her doom in the early light of that cold grey morning. I think our side did everything in their power to save Nurse Cavell, and that the American representative, although ill, made splendid though vain efforts again and again . . . I came away thinking what a horrible thing war was, and that people who advocated it were senseless, and that another war like the great war was a thing for the nation to avoid at all costs."

Boy between 12 and 13, "Ypres", a year before ("Better 'Ole", "Tin Hats"). He remembers "a man has just pulled out his bayonet breathing vengeance on the Germans when he is shot dead . . . War is all wrong, but when you see a war film it makes you very excited. I think war ought to be abolished, for it not only costs thousands of lives and thousands of pounds but wrecks hundreds of villages also."

A girl between 14 and 15, who had seen two war films, says: "After I had seen the film, [I] thought that, when I grow older, I shall always vote for 'No more war'. I did not like to see men fight each other like that. Why cannot men all love one another instead of fighting?"

A boy of 15 who had seen "The Somme" says: "This film made me think that war is a very ghastly thing and ought to be never brought up again, whatever the causes are."

XIV. *How to prevent War — The League of Nations.*

If it is desirable to prevent war in future, as so many children think, it seems to follow that some other methods must be used to settle international disputes. Some children say this and leave the matter there. The form of the questionnaire does not directly suggest the consideration of alternatives to war, but "out of the abundance of the heart the mouth speaketh",

and, if practical alternatives were present in the minds of children who are genuinely horrified by the idea of a future war, they would tend to crop up in the replies, as do other matters not directly suggested by visual impressions. It is noteworthy that only ninety children out of 1,100 (8 per cent) mention such alternatives to war as international discussion of differences. Very few children allude to the League of Nations.

Examples.

Girl of 10, " Dawn ", a month before (" The Unknown Soldier"). She remembers "the shooting of Nurse Cavell. The officer who would not shoot her and was shot himself . . . I think that war is dreadful, and, if the League of Nations did not support us, I think there would be more wars."

Boy of 13, "What Price Glory ?", four or five months before (" The War through German Spectacles "). He says : "For my own part, I think that war is quite dreadful and should be done away with. If men came together and, instead of fighting, argued the thing out the countries would get on a lot better."

Girl between 13 and 14, " The Seventh Heaven ", a month before (four other war films) : " I remember best where the whole of the French army went to war in taxi-cabs and everything else that they could possibly get into . . . I do not like war, nor war pictures. It is two nations striving to see how many of the other side they can kill. I think that the League of Nations is a good cause, as it may stop many wars."

Boy between 15 and 16, who had seen three war films, thinks "that war is nothing but butchery and that all nations ought to band together in a united effort to crush all thought of it out of existence."

Girl of 16, who had seen two war films, says : "I think war is terrible, and such movements as the League of Nations and 'No more War' movements should do all they can to cause disarmament and prevent another war, which necessarily would be more serious than the last."

"There is a noble band of men named the League of Nations out to stop war and we wish them success", says an elementary-school boy of 13.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

The replies of the Bradford children have now been submitted to quantitative analysis — so far as the opinions of individual human beings can be so treated. Also, the views of one hundred boys and girls out of a total of 1,149 have been given in their own words. No child has been quoted more than once. The number of these illustrative examples may serve to preclude any suspicion that only selected answers from a handful of exceptional children have been considered. Those given in each category may be taken as fair samples of their type. Where any sub-heading refers only to a small number of replies, this is stated. All the replies display broad common characteristics, expressed in somewhat different words by each child, which indicate the average consensus of child opinion concerning war films in twenty-five Bradford schools. No one who reads the answers to the questionnaire can believe that war films have made war popular with these children, or that these films have exercised no permanent effect upon their imagination. As one girl puts it very simply : " The film made me think that war was very cruel and people ought not to fight and that more war films should be shown ".

A similar general result has been obtained by the use of the League of Nations Union questionnaire in another part of England. About 95 per cent of the replies of the children who answered it were anti-war.

It will be seen that the detailed analysis of Bradford anti-war replies, classified according to content, fully confirms the results of the numerical classification tabulated at the end of Part I. It also corroborates the suggestions made in Part II, that the effect of moving pictures of war on the imagination of children is to enable them, as nothing else can, to realise to a certain extent what modern warfare means. What they write proves that they remember, often vividly, what they have seen, and think about it to the extent of forming opinions into which it enters. Probably the questionnaire has been useful in drawing out this expression of opinion and thus helping the children to clarify their own impressions. Perhaps some who have answered it understand better than before why war seems to them so repulsive. For this, as for other reasons, it appears desirable that an enquiry of like nature should be made in many different localities.

It is encouraging to note the dislike of cruelty and the pity for suffering discernible in so many answers ; also the desire to be fair to the enemy and the general sense that war is wrong and stupid and to be avoided in future. The weakness which permeates the replies as a whole is ignorance of recent history. Courts of Arbitration, the League of Nations, the Permanent Court of International Justice, the existing peace machinery of the world, which has become during the last ten years a central fact in political life, finds the vaguest echo in the replies of even the most intelligent children ; and they urgently need such knowledge to guide their thoughts and emotions. It is not enough to dread war and realise its dangers. These future citizens have a right to know what has been done, and is being done, to prevent it, and also to further co-operative international action for the general good. In its *Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers* of 1927, the Board of Education devotes twenty-two pages to " the proper historical setting and significance " of the League of Nations.

The formal education of most of the children who have filled up the questionnaire is nearly at an end. Those in elementary schools will leave at 14, most of those in secondary schools at 16. After they leave school, the majority will gain only from newspapers their knowledge of history in the making. Unless they have a basis of sound and impartial knowledge of the immediate past to explain the present, they are unfairly handicapped as citizens and as thinking men and women.

As well might the citizens of to-morrow hope to understand the British Commonwealth of Nations without any knowledge of the development of the British Empire during the last fifty years, and especially during the present century, as to understand casual newspaper information about the League of Nations, without a solid foundation of historical fact concerning its origin and organisation. Moral instruction about the beauties of peaceful co-operation and the hideous results of war is as futile as religion confined to theology and church-going, unless it is accompanied by a general knowledge and clear grasp of the history of the last twenty years, the great war and the political conditions that have arisen out of it. At this critical moment, when the future of our civilisation hangs in the balance, there is surely urgent need for the citizens of every country to know and understand the practical methods that have been and are being used to avert strife by the reasonable settlement of disputes.

Difficult to teach and too dry for children, say certain teachers. What about the cinema as a help in teaching? Whether we like it or not, picture-houses are exercising a tremendous influence in the self-education of children. What they see there influences their thoughts, their feelings and their outlook on life. They are not merely impressed for the moment, they remember and can recall what they have seen. Words may go in at one ear and out at the other ; what is seen may give ideas new interest and new meaning. Moving pictures can carry over complicated happenings and the relations between them, simply as visual impressions, which strike the imagination and remain as food for thought. Such impressions can be called up and clothed in verbal form by children themselves with a teacher's guidance. They cannot replace verbal teaching, but they may give it permanence and vastly increase its scope.

The investigation on a large scale carried out by the League of Nations Union Film Committee in 1926, with the aid of 240 teachers, proved the educational value of their historical teaching film, "The Star of Hope". Unfortunately, neither this film nor its successor, "The World War and After", has yet been shown in Bradford.

It would seem that the war film enquiry has added one more proof to those already existing of the educational possibilities of the cinema. Clearly the International Educational Cinematographic Institute lately founded at Rome under the auspices of the League of Nations has magnificent work before it.

C. M. WILSON.

QUESTIONNAIRE ON WAR FILMS

Age __ 13 years _____

I. What War Films have you seen? 1 The Battle of the Somme
2 The Battle of Arras

II Write down the name of one of these Films The Somme _____

1. How long ago did you see it? ___9months _____
2. What do you remember best? Every one in the Battle that had to go over the top who "No Man's Land" seem anxous to get there as soon as they could, as if they wanted the enimy (this) to kill them _____

3 What do you think of "our side"? All of our side were very brave and if they were "hit" most of them would laugh about it, just to try to deaden the pain a little. _____

4 What do you think of the other side? I think that if the other side were taken anywhere by surprise they would soon give in. Where an English man would fight to death before be taken prisonor. _____

5. What did the Film make you think of War? War seems rather interesting when one is watching it on the films but in real life it is different, and I think that the League of Nations are doing good work to try to stop war

TP 1418—7000 (115)

QUESTIONNAIRE ON WAR FILMS

Age 13 years.

I What War Films have you seen? The Emden Yeapes The Somme Mons

II Write down the name of one of these Films The Battle with the Emden

1 How long ago did you see it? 3 weeks

2 What do you remember best? Was that when the Emden was met by the Sydney it fought on till every thing was put out of order with the guns of the Sydney

3 What do you think of our side? It is surprising how a little country like our could hold such brave hearted lads who would give their lifes to stop the enemy from getting hold

4 What do you think of the other side? That they stuck stood to their guns and carried out the orders of their captain

5 What did the Film make you think of War? That I would like to be in the aroplanes that guards our land and soldiers and blow the head off the men that make war with England

TP 1646—10m (11/8)

KING'S COLLEGE

QUESTIONNAIRE ON WAR FILMS

Age 11

I What War Films have you seen? _____
a "The Better 'ole"
b "The Trumpet Call"
c "What Price Glory"
d. "Barbed Wire"

II Write down the name of one of these Films "The Better 'ole"

1. How long ago did you see it? eight weeks since _____

2 What do you remember best? When the English had nearly beaten the Germans, their trenches fell in and some of them were killed. The Germans then captured some of our men _____

3 What do you think of our side? The British fought like real soldiers, killing the others one-handed. Their helmets were clean and bright and their coat buttons which they had, cleaned _____

4 What do you think of the other side? I thought that the other side were like sleeping dummies, who couldn't talk. Then an English, through a bomb and blew them up. _____

5. What did the Film make you think of War? I thought that when I grow up I will be a soldier and fight like the others have to do. _____

QUESTIONNAIRE ON WAR FILMS

Age 12

I What War Films have you seen? "The Somme" "Ypres" "Neuville from Armentieres" "Second to None" "Behind the Front" "Dawn".

II Write down the name of one of these Films "The Somme"

1 How long ago did you see it? March 1928

2 What do you remember best? I remember best when a Lieutenant was in a shell hole with some of his comrades, when he saw a hand wave and he went out and found the Sergent. He was about to carry him away when some Germans appeared, so he went back for his Lewis gun and saved him. For this deed he won the Victoria Cross

3 What do you think of "our side"? I think that our side was very brave and gallant. And as cruel as the Germans.

4. What do you think of the other side? The other side were brave as well as the English.

5 What did the Film make you think of War? The film made me think that War was cruel, and wicked. And why they fought, was no good to the so both sides.

TP 1445–7000 (138)

QUESTIONNAIRE ON WAR FILMS

Age 12 9/12.

I. What War Films have you seen? Mons, Somme, Ypres, The Four Horsemen of Apocolayspes.

II. Write down the name of one of these Films Mons.

1. How long ago did you see it? 10 months ago
2. What do you remember best? When the Highlanders found a wounded soldier, & took him in a mill, where they were discovered by Uhlans, whom he called 'Squareheads' they escaped, the Highlanders, carr-ing his wounded comrade in a wheel barrow, & they eventually caught up the troops.
3. What do you think of "our side"? Our soldiers showed grit, & spirit, & upheld the name of the Empire, thus showing that they deserv-ed the name 'the Bulldog breed', showing England had not disinherited it, for they fought to the last man against the enemy.
4. What do you think of the other side? The Germans also were heroes, for the manner in which they charged, (massed formation) showed it Although shot like rabbits they still continued But to the end they lost this
5. What did the Film make you think of War? It made me th-ink how horrible & ghastly it was How nations lost healthy men. Some were great footballers, or cricketers, & came back without an arm or leg ruined for life, & the sooner stopped the better

TP 1445 1000 (115)

QUESTIONNAIRE ON WAR FILMS

Age 15 years 4 months

I What War Films have you seen? The Big Parade. Mons

II Write down the name of one of these Films The Big Parade.

1. How long ago did you see it? 18 months.

2 What do you remember best? The soldiers had to do just as they were told and if a friend was killed, they had to go on fighting not taking any notice.

3 What do you think of our side? Our side ~~was~~ seemed very plucky and brave because they were so loyal to their country.

4 What do you think of the other side? The other side seemed at first as if it was using the most awful plans against our side, but really they did just what the English did.

5. What did the Film make you think of War? The film made me think that war is the most horrible way of making peace, because it caused so many deaths and sorrows to those at home.

TP 1448—7000 (118)

QUESTIONNAIRE ON WAR FILMS

Age 13 years

1 What War Films have you seen? Ypres, Somme, Old Bill on the Western Front

H Write down the name of one of these Films Old Bill on the Western Front

1. How long ago did you see it? 3 month ago.

2 What do you remember best? the part where Bill and his pal got inside a horse shoe, and two drunken Germans captured it thinking it was a proper horse.

3 What do you think of "our side"? Our side were fighting valiant never once retreating.

4 What do you think of the other side? The Germans were not doing bad only their progress was slow.

5. What did the Film make you think of War? I dont think war is a good thing. Thousands of lives are lost. Horses lives are lost.

TP 1448—7000 (116)

INTERNATIONAL HOLIDAY GATHERINGS OF SCHOOL-CHILDREN

It was in August 1927 that our first international gathering of school-children took place at Bierville (Seine et Oise) ; the second was at Freiburg in Breisgau, and the third is to be at "Bedales" (Petersfield, England) on August 8-26, 1929, by the kindness of Mr. J. H. Badley, headmaster of the school. Here, as in the two previous years, 50 French, 50 German and 50 English children, boys and girls between the ages of 12 and 16, under leaders from their own countries, will meet together for intercourse and companionship, and also for definite work at the languages. It is this which makes the gathering a school and not a camp, regular hours for language work forming part of each day's programme.

The English children are drawn chiefly from the public schools or private schools, the French from the lycées, and the German from the Oberrealschulen and Realgymnasia, and all have some knowledge of at least one foreign language.

They come from all parts of their respective countries — from York, Ackworth, Sidcot, London, Dublin and Edinburgh, in Britain ; from Bordeaux, Rouen, Lyons, Roubaix, Nancy, Paris, in France ; and from Recklinghausen, Berlin, Mannheim, Munich, Darmstadt and Freiburg, in Germany.

Their leaders are for the most part teachers, who come, many of them, direct from their term's work, bringing along with them some children from their own schools. But while this is sometimes the case, the majority of leaders and children are wholly unknown to one another.

While the wider aims of fraternity and intercourse underlie the purpose of these gatherings, their special feature is the work which is attempted in the three languages by teachers and children. Every individual boy and girl in question is spending years of his or her school-life in trying to acquire modern languages, but has too few opportunities of using them. As a result of this coming together, not only do they realise better the value, the necessity even, of being able to speak modern languages, but their intercourse gives an *élan* to their future studies. Closely intertwined with this purpose is the further

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one of some study together of the literature, music and art of the different countries, so that they learn something of the universal things which are above and beyond mere nationality and may be a step nearer to the stage, when, as Oscar Wilde put it, it would seem natural to say: "We will not go to war with France because her prose is so perfect". This might be extended and we should say: "Nor with Germany, her music is so perfect"; "nor with England, her poetry is so perfect".

The programme each day then begins with two hours' work at the languages; but, as I wish to speak chiefly of this, it may be best to state at once that the remainder of the mornings (11.30 a.m. to 1 p.m.) and the afternoons (2 to 6.30 p.m.) are given to bathing, sports, games, matches — all under expert supervision and direction. Excursions are also made on foot or by coach.

For the work-period, children are arranged roughly according to age, into groups of about twenty, there being in each some French, some German, and some English children. Each group is under the efficient guidance of a leader who speaks all three languages and is ready to help and advise in any way necessary.

The first quarter of an hour is given to the learning of words in preparation for the singing of songs agreed upon to be learnt by the whole community. For five minutes, one after the other, the children of the different nationalities in each group are the teachers of the others. They change places in turn, and the learners become the teachers. The children work hard and there are expressions of satisfaction when the pupils acquit themselves well. By general consent, it is found that the cleverer the leaders of the groups, the less there is for them to do ! The words of songs are repeated each morning till they are known by heart. It is found best to attempt only two verses of each song, the aim being to get to know as many airs as possible and so give plenty of change to the united singing.

The remainder of the two work-hours, after the song practice, is given to preparation for the evening entertainments, which are given entirely by the different work-groups; these consist of scenes, short plays, charades, songs in action or any dramatic form which the children like to present. Every group is so eager to appear on the stage that none refuses to attempt a foreign language, and a stride in the right direction

is made when no one is in any way deterred by the fear of making mistakes.

Apart from the prescribed two hours each morning, so keen are the groups that at all hours of the day the stage is in use, and improvised *mise en scènes* and costumes enhance the fun. Frequently, the gangways and entrances to the stage are partially blocked by the properties and paraphernalia of the competing groups, but the greatest friendliness prevails. The post of organiser and compiler of the evening programmes is not an easy one, but it was filled with great skill last year at Freiburg. Never was there a hitch or delay between the items, which followed one another in quick succession; there was always more material than could be accepted and preference was always given to items offered in a foreign tongue.

Both in France and in Germany we had very good music staffs, who organised the practice of the large number of songs learnt by the united groups. They kept in close touch with the morning group-work, and songs and dances were threaded through the dramatic scenes. The leaders of this branch contributed further to the main purpose of the school by emphasising the international knowledge of, and interest in, music. One evening, twelve short movements or themes from well-known composers were played, and the children wrote down the names of the musicians as far as they could identify them. The papers were collected and the results were announced at a later entertainment. A choir of adults and children was formed and also an orchestra — violins, two 'cellos, a guitar and piano. The members of these showed unflagging enthusiasm and were to be heard practising at all hours of the day. They produced, among other things, several English madrigals and some Brahms' songs, including "Der Schmidt," sung first in German and then in English. The orchestra produced Hăndel's "Largo," and two Carols arranged by Holst.

Among the things which were produced by the work-groups were :

1. "The Musicians of Bremen", French, by German and English children.
2. "The House that Jack Built", in English, done by French and German children.
3. Scenes from "Julius Cæsar", in French.
4. Several songs in action (no one ever spoke his own language): *e.g.*, "Le roi fait battre le tambour"; "Nous

étions trois filles, toutes à marier"; "Gretelein, willst Du tanzen"; "Hänschen Klein"; "Oh?" no! John; no, John!"

5. Stories from "Der Struwwelpeter", in German, by English children.
6. Some universal fairy stories were arranged in the three languages so that the English spoke French, the French German, and the German English, e.g., " The Three Bears ", in which the father-bear spoke German, the mother-bear French and the baby-bear English ; " Little Red Riding Hood ", where there were three children (Le petit Chaperon Rouge, Rotkäppchen, and Little Red Riding Hood), three grandmothers and three wolves. All the characters spoke in canon in the different languages and the drama was thus carried out three times over in quick sequence.

The organisers of these international gatherings desire to make them in every way as valuable as possible, and to this end some preparatory work is suggested for all children intending to be present. Details of such work are sent round about three months before the school meets. As, of course, this preparation can only be done in term time, too much cannot be expected of the children, and work which requires co-operation is not possible because the prospective members of the school are scattered in three different countries. But a well-known book, short poems and songs in English, French and German are selected by the different group-leaders, cyclostyled in large quantities in England, despatched in packets to headquarters abroad, and distributed.

Small prizes are offered for the best recitation of the poems chosen. At one of the evening entertainments last year a committee of eight children (French, German and English) judged in turn the recitations of the poems by the competitors.

It is proposed this year to carry the idea of preparatory work further. Some such suggestions as the following may be made (they are, of course, capable of endless enlargement) :

1. Any children who wish may collect picture postcards of their home towns and surroundings, prepare a short account of them in a foreign language, and at one of the united evening gatherings show the pictures by means of a projector apparatus, which reproduces postcards to a size large enough to be seen by the whole assembly.

2. Postcards of famous pictures may be collected and brought to the school and shown by means of the projector, the children will describe and enlarge upon what they have prepared and collected and all will be made aware of one of our common sources of knowledge and culture.
3. Prizes will be offered for the best lists of words and expressions in any of the languages which have passed over and been adopted into another language, e.g., esprit de corps, noblesse oblige, R.S.V.P., into English ; cricket, five o'clock, sport, into French and German ; standard (of excellence or attainment), chef, chauffeur, into German and English.
4. For the best one-minute speeches in a foreign language (list of suitable subjects appended).

Last year there was a great response to this suggestion, and many children offered speeches in both foreign languages. The interest of the audience never flagged and time alone forbade our hearing all the eager candidates.

Some of the above proposals may be made only at the beginning of the school ; announcements in three languages of competitions open to all members will greet the children on their arrival.

From this short survey I think it will be clear that, in order to get good results, a great deal of time and forethought must be given to the working out of details and nothing left to chance. Not only must every child's and every leader's place be assigned before the date of meeting, but there must be, as far as possible, preparatory consultation and exchange of ideas among those coming with parties and leading the work-groups. It is here that the best people are essential ; they must have enthusiasm and be open to giving and receiving new ideas. Only thus is it possible in so short a time together to obtain good results.

The results of the gatherings, though necessarily crude and imperfect, have been nothing short of thrilling. We have found that, given opportunity and recognition of their effort, the children are able and willing to tackle difficulties, and that they attempt, in their unself-conscious ease, things which their leaders would not face. The fear of speaking in a foreign tongue loses much of its terror where all are battling with the same difficulties and where the atmosphere is friendly and uncritical.

The dramatic sense is immensely strong in all the children, and this is equally true of all the three races. This implies working in groups ; little work for the stage can be done in isolation.

Underlying the efforts of the groups, too, is the opportunity for creating something, for selecting and choosing from known material until the development is a creation, and something new.

In most children, too, the desire to impart is strong. They are all eager to contribute, and if due encouragement is given, they will offer endless suggestions—some of them useful! Further, we find that the children learn more from each other than from their elders, and they learn, too, just what they want to know and what will be at once practically useful to them. And they are good teachers in this way, that they are not bored by constant repetition ; they will often repeat a word over and over merely for its sound. The difficulties of unknown companions, unfamiliar names, and foreign languages do not seem to trouble them much, and the common ages seem very quickly to understand one another. In the early years there are so many more things in common which unite than those which divide. It is for us, the older generation, so sensitive to slights, so full of reservations and of prejudices, to see to it that the big uniting forces are not impeded from the beginning by our too complicated webs of thought.

E. M. GILPIN,
Headmistress of the Hall School,
Weybridge, England.

A LEAGUE OF NATIONS COURSE IN A ROYAL NAVAL ACADEMY

The Royal Naval Academy at Stockholm is designed to provide instruction for naval officers in matters necessary to fit them for their duties in the maritime defence of their country. At the earlier stage of instruction there is a common course of a year's duration ; the officers are then distributed among various parallel higher courses, and it is in one of these courses, lasting for a year, that teaching is provided in international law. Naturally, the main stress is laid on the actual laws of naval warfare and neutrality ; but for this purpose it is clearly necessary to give also a general outline of the law of nations. During the past year, when I was responsible for that course, it included an account of the League of Nations.

This course on the League has dealt with its organisation and aims, together with an account of the International Labour Office and the Permanent Court of International Justice. Attention has been devoted to the activity of the League in attempting to realise the three objectives of security, arbitration and disarmament. Particular emphasis has been laid on Articles 8-17, and the distinction between legal and illegal wars has been brought out.

The subject of disarmament has led to a summary of the achievements of the Washington Conference, 1921-22. Further, since Swedish public opinion has been particularly interested in the Aland Islands question, the lectures have included an account of the negotiations leading up to the Convention, and the latter was dealt with in full detail.

Finally, as an introduction to the treatment of the laws of naval warfare, a short summary was given of the Barcelona and Geneva Conventions relating to international waterways, seaports, etc., drawing special attention to the fact that they had been drawn up as part of the work of the League of Nations.

This account of the League, together with the achievements of the Washington Conference, comprised about twelve lectures.

Åke Holmbäck,

Professor at the University of Upsala.

INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION IN INSTITUTIONS OF UNIVERSITY RANK

An important section of the report of the experts is devoted to the teaching of the League of Nations and of international co-operation in universities. For obvious reasons, the Sub-Committee preferred to confine its detailed recommendations under this head within very narrow limits : for higher education does not easily lend itself to general prescriptions from outside, however well informed. But the whole tenor of the report, especially in its second section, reveals the importance attached by its authors, in relation to the object of their enquiry, to the institutions which prepare the élite of the community for the tasks of modern life. And, indeed, the responsibilities of University institutions, in regard to international co-operation, have been very widely recognised in recent years, particularly since the publication of the experts' report. It is the object of the following pages to draw attention to the progress that has recently been made in this domain and to the new prospects thus opened out in the field of higher education along the lines of the experts' report.

That international co-operation should be fostered by universities is not a pious wish originating in a Committee of the League of Nations. Indeed, the first efforts which were made from outside quarters to interest the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in this problem showed a certain disregard of what had already been accomplished by universities in the seven centuries during which these foundations have exercised an influence upon the intellectual life of Europe. Projects were submitted for an International University which seemed to rule out the university of the ordinary type as valueless for the promotion of international understanding and which looked to the establishment of a new and special kind of institution. Neither of the three schemes submitted, one by the Indian member of the Committee, another by the Spanish Government and a third by Professor Barany of the University of Upsala, descended into the details of the problem. Analysis, however, soon revealed that the idea of an international University, worked out in the concrete, is either unworkable or a misnomer. For an International University, in any real

sense of the two words, implies two things : firstly, the current use of several languages of instruction ; and, secondly, the co-existence of at least two Faculties. A moment's reflection is sufficient to reveal that no institution could be carried on under these conditions and retain any real measure of homogeneity and *esprit de corps*, except possibly in the case of languages and cultures so closely akin as not to justify the use of the term international.

Nevertheless, the fact that these projects were laid before the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation had the effect of drawing attention to the subject and thus of promoting its discussion on more practical lines. The problem was recognised to be one, not of creating new official institutions which should attempt to replace the existing activities and traditions, but of extending the purpose and enlarging the range of existing institutions upon an international basis. In this development of the discussion on this subject we may trace an analogy with the development of the discussion regarding the nature and purpose of the League of Nations itself. Originally regarded in many quarters, by impatient thinkers, as a new Government or even State, suspended, as it were, in mid-air, above all the existing political entities, it is now, in the light of nearly ten years' activity, recognised by all, not as a super-state, but as a means of co-operation, new, indeed, in its methods and in its spirit, but not replacing the old States so much as transforming them by its influence. In the same way, the organisation of international co-operation which is gradually being evolved among the university institutions of the world will never be a super-university, but will confine itself to the modest task of facilitating for individual institutions the performance of the work that rightly belongs to them.

This work — the contribution of institutions of university rank to international co-operation — is of two kinds, technical and more general. It will be best to describe it in this order.

At its meeting in July 1926, after carefully considering Professor Barany's project, the Sub-Committee on University Relations adopted a resolution, later confirmed by the plenary Committee, in which, after endorsing in general terms the plan for an international School of Politics, it instructed the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation to discover " what result could be achieved by co-ordinating the national and international organisations already in existence ".

The programme of *national* co-ordination thus laid down

has been firmly adhered to ever since and has, as will be seen, formed the basis of the scheme of international co-ordination later developed.

During the year July 1926-1927, progress was slow. When the International Committee met again in July 1927 it could, however, be reported that a beginning had been made in one important country. The French institutions of university rank, engaged in the study of international relations, had come together to form a Joint Committee under the chairmanship of the Rector of the University of Paris. Thus encouraged, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, in July 1927, drew attention to what had been done in France, urged that similar co-ordination should be carried out in other countries and authorised the summoning of an international conference in the course of the year if circumstances appeared to justify it. Consultations in London, Berlin and other centres followed, and on March 22nd the first " meeting of representatives of scientific institutions for the study of politics " (as it described itself in the resolutions adopted) met in Berlin under the auspices of the Paris Institute.

The Berlin meeting was decisive as a test of the soundness of the method adopted. The representatives of sixteen institutions of university rank, situated in eight different countries, coming together for the first time to discuss their common affairs and, indeed whether they had any common affairs, discovered a large and fruitful field of common labour. It was realised instinctively by all who were present that the conference represented a new study, or rather, the entrance of an old study, too long despised and perhaps debased, into the sacred circle of the scientific disciplines. No definite resolution was passed to proclaim this, but it is implicit in every line of the recommendations adopted, which aim, without exception, at improving the opportunities and instruments of work available to the scientific student of contemporary affairs — the publication of a handbook of information, the exchange of teaching staff, facilities for visiting teachers and other qualified persons, and for the equivalence of degrees and diplomas in political studies, co-operation in regard to reference centres, bibliography, publications and, last but not least, research. Before the Conference separated, it had nominated a Committee of five of its own members to co-operate with the League of Nations Institute in making arrangements for a second meeting.

But even more interesting perhaps than the discussions devoted to instruments of work was the process of self-analysis to which the Berlin conference gave rise. What kind of University institutions, the reader may have asked himself, are these bodies which devote themselves specially to "the scientific study of international affairs"? This is, indeed, precisely the question which the members of the conference found themselves asking of one another. Brought together because of a common subject of study, and finding themselves possessed of a common spirit, they were surprised to discover how diversified they were in types of organisation. For the study of international affairs differs in important respects from other branches of scientific humanistic study, and its special characteristics only became clear when the different types of activity confronted one another at the conference. The analysis revealed that the institutions represented at Berlin (and subsequent additions to the ranks have not modified the classification) can be defined under four heads: (1) centres of study and discussion (*i.e.*, not necessarily *teaching* institutions at all); (2) special and supplementary courses; (3) regular teaching institutions outside the university proper; (4) university faculties of the traditional type.

The collaboration thus established between the institutions represented at Berlin was deepened by personal contacts and the preparation of the second conference at London in March of this year followed almost as a matter of course. This conference revealed a considerable advance in organisation, both as regards countries and institutions. Of the larger countries, possessing several institutions devoted to the subject, France, Germany, Great Britain, Poland and the United States of America had national "co-ordinating centres" prepared to enter into relations, on behalf of institutions in their countries, with centres or institutions abroad. Italy, though represented at both conferences, had not yet perfected her organisation in this respect. The same is true of Japan, which was represented for the first time in London. Four other countries invited to the Conference, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark and Roumania, each possess a single institution recognised as qualifying them for membership.

In addition to these national institutions, the London conference comprised representatives of certain institutions organised on an international basis. These were the Academy of International Law at The Hague, the Geneva School of

International Studies, the Post-graduate Institute of International Studies at Geneva, the Institute of Pacific Relations at Honolulu and the European Centre of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. To enumerate this list is to indicate its diversity in types of organisation ; but its very variety illustrates what has already been said ; for no one of these five organisations, constructed upon international lines for the study of politics, is a teaching institution of the ordinary academic type, still less an international university. The reasons for this must be sought as much in the region of psychology as of organisation and to them we must return.

The resolutions adopted at the London meeting carry one stage further the process of practical collaboration inaugurated at Berlin. The mutual services which the institutions can perform are more precisely indicated, in the light of experience, and, in addition to the common prospectus or handbook which has already been published, the issue of a directory of non-partisan reference centres on international affairs is to be arranged for. But the most interesting feature of the London resolutions was the decision to set on foot certain common enterprises, thus testifying to the growth of a corporate consciousness. Three undertakings of this kind were approved in principle. One concerned the publication of a handbook or lexicon of political terms difficult of comprehension across national frontiers. The second looked to the organisation of a conference of teachers concerned with international studies to discuss the educational problems arising out of this new branch of study and, in particular, the relation between academic teaching and practical experience. The third recommended " the undertaking of simultaneous programmes of research into problems whose range necessitates international co-operation or whose complexity suggests the co-ordination of various branches of study ". It expressed approval of the work carried on on these lines in the countries bordering the Pacific by the Institute of Pacific Relations, and drew special attention to the recommendation of the Economic Consultative Committee regarding the study of economic tendencies affecting the peace of the world.

This last suggestion affords an interesting example of the value of maintaining close touch between educational circles and the technical organs of the League of Nations, and, indeed, of Governments generally. Within a few weeks of the London Conference, a French and a German economist, Professor André

Siegfried and Professor Bonn, were at work at Geneva, on the invitation of the Director of the Financial and Economic Section of the Secretariat, in pursuance of a recommendation by the Economic Consultative Committee, to make a first survey of the field of economic policy in its bearing upon peace and war, and their report, when published, should be a powerful stimulus towards the adoption in this field of co-operative programmes on the lines suggested at the London conference.

Finally, the London conference set up an Executive Committee of nine persons, with a quorum of four, under the chairmanship of Sir William Beveridge, Director of the London School of Economics and Political Science, who had presided over the conference "to make arrangements for a subsequent meeting of the conference and to conduct any necessary work of the conference between meetings".

This rapid survey of recent developments would not be complete without a few general conclusions resulting from the experience gathered.

The movement for the promotion of international co-operation on the university plane has had to contend, as has already been indicated, with two rival influences. On the one hand there were those who wished to create, or to transform, university institutions so that they should directly serve the cause of peace. On the other hand, there were those who considered that the interests of peace, and of civilisation generally, were best served by holding firmly to the traditional academic values of intellectual integrity and devotion to truth. The former school, despairing of moulding the existing universities to their hearts' desire, dreamed dreams of founding a Utopian university where their ideal could be realised in all its purity. The latter simply planned to extend to a field hitherto almost untouched by it the scientific methods that had been developed for the discovery of truth in other domains. As the event has shown, the latter school now holds the field unchallenged. The name given by the scholars assembled in Berlin and London to their meetings is eloquent of their philosophy and of their purpose. Propaganda, in one guise or another, may still seek a foothold in the lower stages of education. In this field, at any rate, the universities have repelled it.

The second conclusion that emerges is that international co-operation and, still more, the League of Nations is not a subject in the ordinary educational sense of the term. There

has been, in some countries and at some moments since the war, a certain fear that it would come to be so regarded. The multiplication of chairs of International Relations, International Politics and even International Peace, however desirable in itself, has led to a certain confusion in the public mind. A peculiar virtue is felt to attach to anything bearing the prefix "international" and it is forgotten that the most international of subjects are precisely those for which no such prefix would ever be dreamt of. Everyone can realise the absurdity of applying such an appellation to astronomy, where it would only serve to belittle. But the studies that confine themselves to our planet ought to be equally exempt from a universalising epithet. Geography and history, sociology, economics and political science are all, *ex hypothesi*, as international in their range as " international law ". Those who have the responsibility of imparting these disciplines must themselves have a trained sense of international relations and must have learned to see each particular problem against a broader background. In other words, they are, by their intellectual formation, providers of education in international co-operation. Thus it was no accident that round the table in London were found geographers, economists, historians, sociologists, political scientists and lawyers, all of them united, in the consciousness not simply of the international bearings of their particular study, but also of its value as part of the common basis needed by students intending to devote themselves to more specific international work, whether intellectual or practical.

The Berlin and London conferences have thus made it clear that, for international work, as in every other field of specialised intellectual activity, the best and, indeed, the only possible preparation is a good general education. The ardours of idealism are no substitute for knowledge of the stern realities of life, and the true internationalist is he or she who, whilst never forgetful of the ideal, is ready to confront, one by one, every difficulty, whether intellectual or practical, on the road towards the shining goal. Such is the method of science, whether in the field of politics or in the exact disciplines. For those ardent or hasty spirits for whom such tasks are too humble or such achievements too slow, the study of international co-operation and of the League of Nations is out of place. Let the Universities crown them with laurel and let them betake themselves elsewhere to sing their songs or write their

prophecies. They have much to give to mankind, but not in this domain.

But out of the convergence of these various studies, now all coming to be recognised as political, a new unity is emerging ; and this is perhaps the most interesting result revealed by the conferences. They have shown that a stage has been reached at which a process of cross-fertilisation between the political studies has become possible, and indeed not only possible but urgently desirable if these studies are to exercise their rightful and traditional influence on public affairs. Clearly, this new unity only affects one branch or aspect of the study in each case. There are whole tracts of history, of physical geography, and of the other sciences which have no immediate relationship with politics. But the conferences have shown that the political element — so to speak — in each of these studies can be brought into relationship with kindred elements elsewhere, and it is on the basis of such an association of studies that the institutions for the scientific study of politics are devising their organisation and framing their programmes of teaching. So far, therefore, from causing the emergence of a new special subject, the impulse given by the establishment of the League of Nations has led rather to a process of de-specialisation or, at least, cross-specialisation between existing subjects.

This will become clearer when it is seen in the light of institutions rather than of subjects. For, if the subjects taught in the institutions represented at London and Berlin bore old-established names, the institutions themselves were, with rare exceptions, of post-war foundation. Of those that were not orthodox university faculties, only three existed in 1914 : the Consular Academy of Vienna, a foundation of the Empress Maria Theresa ; the Ecole libre des Sciences Politiques, a child of the Franco-German War ; and the Carnegie Endowment. Of these, the Consular Academy has been completely remodelled since 1918 owing to the break-up of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy. The remaining institutions, with the exception of the university faculties, have all of them been established since the war. The Royal Institute of International Affairs dates its origin back to the Peace Conference. The Hochschule für Politik at Berlin, founded somewhat later, was born out of the same preoccupations and the various other national institutions have arisen through similar influences. Of the international bodies, the two which have their seat at Geneva are in close relation with the practical work carried on there,

whilst the Institute of Pacific Relations at Honolulu resulted from the recognition, following on the Washington Conference, of the vast importance for peace or war of the problems of the Pacific area. In all these cases the guiding impulse has been the desire to bring organised knowledge and scientific method to bear on a complex set of problems with which isolated specialisms and even university institutions of the old type were felt to be unable to deal.

Here, again, educational practice has been following the analogy set by the League of Nations itself. One of the most striking innovations of League technique, as it surely will seem in retrospect, has been the way in which it has been able to draw on the services of experts chosen from many different fields of knowledge and experience. The technical organisation of the League may be said to represent an enlargement of the domain of politics and of the conception of what constitutes public affairs. During the same period political science, as a theoretical study, has been undergoing a similar enlargement, due essentially to the same causes. Anyone wishing to realise how striking is the change thus brought about in both domains has only to compare, on the one hand, the existing technique of the League with that generally in vogue before 1914 and, on the other, the programmes of study and the bibliographies used by the institutions represented at London with the text-books of political science that were in vogue fifteen years ago and have perhaps even yet not disappeared entirely in some quarters.

Apart, however, from the practical contribution of university institutions on the technical domain just described, there are certain other more general respects that should never be overlooked in which universities minister to international co-operation.

The university in recent generations has passed through a singular transformation. Dating back as an organised institution to the Middle Ages, when learning was a common possession of a few and the mass were ignorant and illiterate, it has now become in each country the apex of a vast system of public instruction based on the needs and policies of individual States. Six centuries ago, there was no need to promote elaborate methods of co-operation between Salerno, Paris and Oxford ; not only a common language but a common outlook, a common body of knowledge and constant intercourse caused the small minority in each community who sat at the feet of the

university masters of those days to be constantly conscious of their common purpose and interests. Knowledge was still a unity and its possessors naturally felt a unity of spirit and outlook. To-day, both the increase of knowledge itself and its wide diffusion among the population have rendered that old unity impossible. Increase of specialisation has broken up the field of knowledge and divided scholars from one another, whilst the increased association of centres of higher learning with the public authorities responsible for the general instruction of the country to which they belong has caused universities to become national in a sense undreamt of in the Middle Ages. These conditions render it necessary that the international co-operation which was achieved naturally in the Middle Ages should be developed deliberately by policy to-day.

To discuss in detail the problem thus opened out would exceed the scope of these pages, but it is clear from their resolutions that the League Sub-Committee of Experts were thoroughly alive to its importance. Several of their suggestions, such as the promotion of exchanges of teachers and the provision of special chairs and of lectures for the students of all Faculties for the promotion of international co-operation, bear witness on this point. This has, indeed, been one of the main pre-occupations of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation itself. It cannot, however, be out of place to indicate a few considerations resulting from actual experience which show the lines on which a solution of this problem may be looked for.

The university of to-day is both national and international. It is national as the apex of the national education and as a home and the best exemplar of the national culture. It is international because every teacher and student in the field of higher education to-day is necessarily in touch with colleagues who are pursuing similar studies and researches in university centres in other countries. The mould is national, but that which is poured into it has an international quality. This quality varies, of course, from study to study ; the exact sciences are more withdrawn from the influence of the national *milieux* than the applied sciences or humanistic studies. But it is surely true to say that no university worker in any field of knowledge can to-day remain unconscious of the tension resulting from the double character of his institution. It is just in that tension that resides the specific contribution of the university to international co-operation. The educated man or woman of to-day, unlike an Anselm, an Abelard or an Erasmus, has the roots of his character

and personality deep in the soil of his own culture and homeland, and it is just in virtue of the poise and harmony thus obtained that he is able to make his appropriate contribution to the varied intellectual life of his time and, more particularly, of the institution to which he belongs.

Here, by a long *détour*, we reach the explanation of a point which was reserved in our previous discussion—the psychological reason why institutions for the promotion of international co-operation have, except in rare cases, the fruit of special circumstances, been developed rather on a national than on an international basis. We are no longer living in an age of universal culture. To-day, an international life, that is to say, a life lived in a society of individuals drawn from many different countries, is something wholly different from what it was five or six centuries ago. It is a mingling of personalities, sharply distinct not only in their language and culture but also in their whole method of thought. This mingling is indeed a necessity if civilisation is to be maintained and the world is not to be involved in the conflicts that must necessarily ensue from the alignment of human society into isolated *blocs* of psychologically distinct groups of peoples. But that it is normally difficult and uncongenial and involves great dangers of friction and misunderstanding is only too well known to those who have made the experiment. That contacts at the lower levels (among traders, for instance, and private soldiers) have not automatically promoted international co-operation is now indeed a commonplace. But it is equally beginning to be recognised that international co-operation, even on the university level, can only take place fruitfully between those who are specially fitted for it, either by personal aptitude or training. Thus it should be no matter of surprise to find that the institutions of university rank for the promotion of international co-operation are almost exclusively national in organisation, in spite of the international character of their subjects of study. It is only in the institutions lasting for shorter periods that an attempt is made to create an actual international society with all the interest and all the tension that such an experiment involves.

The same is true of the associations organised to meet the needs of scholars in their different specialties. International congresses and conferences are and will always remain rare and unusual events. The continuous international contacts of the modern man of learning are carried on in the life of thought and of books and not in outward society. All the more reason for

studying carefully the fields in which organised international co-operation can and should be developed and in seeking the appropriate instrument — appropriate not merely in that it meets the particular technical need but also because it does not violate the psychological laws which determine the nature of human contacts. In this way, the experience of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and its organs has been of precious value in showing how the values of the intellect, which transcend national culture, can be maintained and strengthened through comradeship across frontiers in a world in which not only organisation but also human character and personality are and will continue to be moulded by the characteristic forms of thinking and feeling enshrined in the universities of individual nations.

Note : The *Handbook of Institutions for the Scientific Study of International Relations* referred to above was published in July 1929 in English (7/- or 75 cents), French (12 francs) and German (2 RM) by the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, 2 Rue Montpensier, Paris. It contains information as to forty institutions in thirteen countries.

PART II.

How to make the League of Nations known and to develop a Spirit of International Co-operation.

REPORTS FROM INDIVIDUAL COUNTRIES.

INSTRUCTION ON THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS IN FRANCE

"To familiarise young people with the principles and work of the League of Nations", to develop in them the spirit of international co-operation and to "train them to regard this co-operation as the normal method of conducting world affairs", is a task which has been proposed to teachers in all countries.

It can, however, only be accomplished if all join hands in the work and themselves give evidence of the spirit which they desire to inculcate into others. The manner in which this task presents itself is not the same in every case, and teachers in different countries must necessarily carry it out in different ways.

Let us examine the question from the French standpoint.

I. Factors of the Problem.

We would point out, in the first place, that there are certain circumstances which are calculated to facilitate this task in our own case. We have, perhaps, inherited from a long line of ancestors a tendency to interest ourselves in the aims and ideals of the League of Nations. At all events, these aims and ideals affect us directly and meet the need of peace and security felt by a country which has suffered as cruelly as ours in the past. Moreover, as the League has its seat at Geneva, a town which is partly French and situated very near our frontier, and as French is one of the official languages used in the League's proceedings, this new institution is very real to us and very close in every way.

We are learning to understand it better every day, mainly owing to the efforts of the great French associations, both denominational and undenominational, which have been created to work on its behalf.

Its appeal is particularly strong to the younger generation which experienced the horrors, misery and bereavement caused by the war and whose most ardent desire it is that the future shall be better than the immediate past. Being both idealists

and realists, filled with energy and constructive in their views, they find it easy to comprehend the scope of the League's efforts, to sympathise with its ideals and to work in a spirit of international co-operation for the organisation of peace. They have already proved this on many occasions and in many ways : I need only mention the manifold activities of the groups representing extremely varied opinions and tendencies, which constitute the *Entente des Jeunes pour la Société des Nations*[1]: and the alliance, which was concluded last March at a simple and touching ceremony, between the *Entente* and the *Confédération nationale des anciens combattants*.

A national atmosphere which tends to become more and more favourable to the instruction of the post-war generation in international ideals is thus gradually being created.

For this purpose, it is essential that we should have teachers who are thoroughly familiar with the subject and convinced of its importance. Our present-day teachers have not been trained in the new ideas and the necessary conviction cannot be imparted. Like the rest of the nation they must acquire it for themselves in the course of time. For this reason, the Ministry of Education, which in 1920 spontaneously began to include instruction concerning the League of Nations in the curricula, has always confined itself to judicious suggestions. It has indicated to teachers of all grades opportunities and means of acquiring this instruction and imparting it to their pupils. In this atmosphere of freedom, the principal teachers' associations, the *Syndicat des Institutrices et Instituteurs publics de France et des Colonies* and the *Fédération nationale du Personnel de l'Enseignement secondaire public*, solemnly decided at their respective conferences to instruct young people in the aims and ideals of the League and to develop in them the spirit of international co-operation. This does not, of course, mean that all the teachers belonging to these vast associations are working on behalf of the League. It means, however, that the corporate atmosphere in which they move is favourable to the new ideals, and this is of the utmost importance for the future. A more or less similar movement is manifesting itself among teachers

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[1] *Groupement universitaire pour la Société des Nations ; Ligue d'Action universitaire républicaine et sociale ; Association catholique de la Jeunesse de France ; Sillon catholique ; Jeune République ; Eclaireurs de France ; Eclaireurs unionistes : Alliance des Unions chrétiennes des Jeunesses de France ; Union universelle de la Jeunesse Juive ; Eclaireurs israélites de France ; Jeunesses démocrates populaires ; Fédération des Jeunesses laïques et républicaines.*

belonging to educational establishments not under State control.

Assuming, as we have the right to do, that an ever-growing number of enthusiastic teachers with a training which is daily becomming more adequate are working for these ideals, what will be the effect of their efforts on the school curricula and on national education in general ?

The instruction of children and young persons in the organisation, aims and activities of the League and its supplementary organs and the inculcation of the spirit of international co-operation make it necessary to introduce into the school curricula a whole series of facts and technical and abstract conceptions not previously included, and to guide the faculties of the young in the desired direction.

Technical facts and ideas have been introduced into the syllabus of the lower elementary schools, the higher elementary schools, the training colleges for elementary teachers and the secondary schools and colleges for boys and girls. Instruction in these rudiments is regularly given. Candidates for the primary school certificate and for the secondary school *baccalauréat* may be examined on matters concerning international relations, international law, international arbitration, the League of Nations, etc. Does this mean that these questions already occupy a prominent place in their studies and in their minds, that the pupils follow the development of these questions with the help of periodical information in the same way as they follow that of certain physical phenomena by observing the results recorded by means of suitable apparatus ? This is not yet the case. At the present time, all our school curricula are so overloaded that there can be no question of making any further addition to them. Accordingly, the majority of teachers feel bound to confine their instruction on the League to what is definitely prescribed in the syllabus. There are teachers, however, who do more than this. They give instruction on the matter whenever opportunity offers, and compare former disputes which were settled by force with present-day disputes which the League is endeavouring to settle by pacific means. They inform their pupils of the successful settlement of differences as soon as agreement is reached ; when dealing with a passage from the Iliad or a mediæval epic celebrating the glories of battle they endeavour to make them realise the progress of human ideals.

This first attempt to interest pupils of all ages and all classes outside the scheduled times in the activities of the League

of Nations and in the spirit of international co-operation is of great utility. But this attempt, for which no provision is made in the school curriculum and which is left to the teacher's initiative, is not sufficient to promote the development of this spirit of international co-operation which "must permeate all the child's surroundings", so that he may be thoroughly imbued with it.

Moreover, it is obvious that, as the development of this spirit is mainly a matter of education in the widest sense, it should find a place not only in school but out of school — before, during and after the school age — and that the co-operation of teachers, families and non-scholastic organisations established for or adapted to this end should be enlisted.

The systematic participation of the schools was secured some years ago. It began with the campaign against books with a warlike tendency and is being continued by the publication in increasingly large numbers of primary and secondary school text-books on history, geography, morality, civics, object lessons and moral philosophy, written with a direct appeal to the minds and hearts of children and young persons, and designed to develop in them the spirit of international co-operation. There is every reason to believe that these first constructive efforts will become more numerous, that they will take a more definite form and will gradually extend to the various subjects in which instruction is given to pupils at different stages. As these efforts progress, they will bring about the creation in schools of an atmosphere favourable to the teacher's attempts to inculcate these new ideas, and also a gradual and inevitable change in the character of the teaching as a result of a new classification of the value of the various subjects, and of the priority which will be assigned to those of universal interest.

Can this evolution be accomplished without risk ?

Will young people of the post-war generation, in view of the appeals made to them on every side, succeed not only in acquiring the spirit of international co-operation but in retaining family and national traditions ? Or will they insensibly abandon those traditions with all the essential virtues, the intellectual and artistic wealth and the wealth of sentiment inherent in those traditions ? Will they also be able to guard against a vague ideology which, by causing them to abandon the severe and salutary discipline of struggle — a necessary condition of life and progress — may finally make them less capable of confronting and overcoming difficulties and of taking

an effective part in devising equitable solutions ? These risks can be avoided if we place the child in the natural environment of his family and his country and develop his growing powers, including his moral sense, in such a way that they may later expand in the international *milieu*. By so doing, we shall foster in him the true international spirit which, in the words of Dr. N. M. Butler, "makes much of the spirit, the temper, and the tradition of nationality. It builds upon history and upon achievement, and it appeals to the pride, the glory and the spirit of service of the nations, both great and small. It sees in the various civilised nations so many different facets of a single crystal, each reflecting the light of civilisation in its own way, and each being a necessary part of the complete and perfect stone".[1]

This task will take a very long time. It was begun in France in 1920. Looking at it from an outsider's point of view it would appear to have been barely planned out, for its foundations, which are slowly being built, are still only visible in a few places. Nevertheless, as the following report will show, it has been put in hand.

II. Means of Action.[2]

1. *French Associations working on behalf of the League of Nations and our Young People.*

Several of these associations draw part of their members from the teaching profession and are organised in such a way as to undertake effective propaganda among young people. We would mention for instance :

(*a*) The *Groupement universitaire pour la Société des Nations*, founded in 1923, which is the oldest of the young people's organisations working on behalf of the League. A large number of centres have been established in all parts of the country, as well as some twenty regional sections. This group organises large meetings for propaganda purposes and courses of study for its propagandists. It has been officially recognised in various ministerial circulars and has been authorised to send representatives to all public educational establishments.

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[1] *The Development of the International Mind*, by Nicholas Murray Butler, Carnegie Endowment, European Centre, Paris, 1928.

[2] The following refers particularly to what has been done since March 1927, when a first report was drawn up by Madame Dreyfus-Barney, a member of the Sub-Committee of Experts. This report was published by the League of Nations (document C.I.C.I., 190, pages 63-66).

To mention only the recent results of its work, we would state that, since the beginning of 1928, it has arranged for lectures to be given at eighteen boys' and girls' high schools in Paris, at six higher grade primary schools, at the two training colleges for elementary teachers in the Department of the Seine, at the Technical Training College and at certain secondary schools not under State control.

In conjunction with the General Labour Confederation, this group founded in 1925 the University and Labour Circle of International Studies and participated in the formation of the important group for the League of Nations "*Entente des Jeunes*".

(*b*) The *Comité d'action pour la Société des Nations* sends lecturers to our large schools and, in particular, to the higher training colleges for elementary school teachers at St. Cloud (men) and Fontenay-aux-Roses (women), to the Higher Training College of Sèvres (women) and to the Higher Training College of the Rue d'Ulm (Ecole normale supérieure) (men).

(*c*) The Federation of League of Nations Societies arranged for about a hundred young men and women to follow the summer courses organised by it at Geneva in 1928 during the summer holidays.

(*d*) The *Conseil national des Femmes françaises* is continuing and extending year by year its admirable work in connection with teachers and pupils by sending pamphlets on the League of Nations to school teachers and school booksellers, by approaching publishers to induce them to include, in future, information on the League in their textbooks, by giving books to the circulating library of the *Musée Pédagogique*, by preparing a model lecture on the League of Nations with lantern slides, by organising the 1927 competition open to members of the International Federation of Public Secondary School Teachers for an essay of some forty pages intended to assist teachers in instructing their pupils in the work of the League, by arranging a competition among students of training colleges for elementary school teachers (1927, 1928 and 1929), and by making known in primary and secondary schools the booklet published by the League Secretariat (1929) on "The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations".

(*e*) Reference should also be made to the *Ligue internationale des Mères et des Educatrices pour la Paix*, founded in May 1928 by five French women. By February 1929 its activities

had extended over the half of France and it had obtained supporters in England, Belgium, the Netherlands, Sweden, Poland and Czechoslovakia. The members undertake to work on behalf of pacifist ideals and to give active support to those who are working for the League of Nations as a "means of maintaining international peace".

(*f*) We would further mention the great activity of the General Labour Confederation, which desires after the Conference in September next to give teaching on the League of Nations to young workers.

2. *Sources of Information.*

(a) *Information for teachers and for students in training colleges and other large schools.* — This documentation should include the material necessary for acquiring a knowledge of the aims and organisation of the League and for keeping in constant touch with its current activities.

Teachers who have not specialised in the subject and who have neither the time nor the qualifications to do so — and this applies to the majority — require documentation which has been prepared for them and spares them the trouble of sorting out and combining the material for themselves.

The most essential information is to be obtained from propaganda booklets or from works in the local libraries or in the circulating library of the *Musée Pédagogique*. Since 1926 every parcel of books sent out by this library is accompanied by leaflets on the League of Nations, which thus reach the most remote communes and lead to requests for fuller information. In answer to these requests the library sends on loan a series of documents supplied by the *Conseil national des Femmes françaises*.

Great progress, from the point of view both of the value of the material and the ease with which it may be consulted, has just been made by the publication of a work entitled "*The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations*". This book was prepared by the League Secretariat with the co-operation of M. Th. Rosset, Director of Elementary Education, M. Charles Ab der Halden, Inspector-General of Education, and Mr. G. T. Hankin, one of His Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, Board of Education, London. This book supplies an essential need, and it also represents an attempt to guide elementary and secondary school-teachers in all countries, who for the first

time " will thus be enabled to feel that they and their colleagues throughout the world are drawing upon the same source of information ".

Generally speaking, the work of keeping abreast of the League's activities is left to individual effort. Teachers may have to consult, according to circumstances, professional, national or international reports, educational publications, reviews published by the various League of Nations Associations, publications of the League Secretariat, works of specialists, etc. Very few have the necessary means of information at their disposal to enable their teaching to become essentially living and objective, as it should be. We require to make a serious effort to provide them with these means.

The *Comité national d'Etudes sociales et politiques*, founded in 1916 by M. Albert KAHN, is gradually placing its documentation at the disposal of the universities, the large civil and military schools, all training colleges[1] and the lycées. This documentation aims at presenting as accurate an account as possible of events of importance to humanity as a whole and at grouping these events in such a way as to bring out their deeper significance.[2]

The office of the information service of the *Comité national* is at the *Ecole normale supérieure*. Other information centres have been established at the *Ecole polytechnique*, the *Ecole centrale des Arts et Manufactures*, the *Ecole nationale supérieure des Mines*, the *Ecole spéciale militaire de St. Cyr*, the *Ecole normale supérieure de Sèvres*, the *Ecole normale supérieure de St. Cloud*, the *Scouts de France* (Catholic), the *Eclaireurs de France* (Protestant), the *Eclaireurs de France* (un denominational), the *Eclaireuses de France*, and also in the Faculties of Bordeaux, Lyons, Strasburg and Toulouse. The establishment of similar centres in China, Germany, Great Britain, Japan, Persia and the United States of America is being considered.

Finally, the *Archives de la Planète*, also founded some fifteen years ago by M. A. KAHN, contains educational films and coloured photographs showing types of mankind, scenery and the principal current events throughout the world. Use

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[1] Since February 1929, this documentation has been officially sent to our training colleges for elementary school teachers.

[2] The documentation is published in the form of daily bulletins (*Réalités, Journée planétaire*), weekly bulletins (*Suppléments des Réalités, Semaine planétaire, Faits Sociaux, Vie Economique, Esprit public*) and bi-monthly bulletins (*Possibilités, Orientation nouvelle*).

is made of this very valuable collection in connection with the course in human geography at the *Collège de France*, and it is also employed to illustrate various other lessons given in Paris and the provinces. It includes some excellent films concerning the League of Nations.

(b) *Information for elementary and secondary schools.* — This information is mainly to be found in revised or recently published text-books on civics and morals, moral philosophy, history and geography. Most of these manuals are written in a spirit which is definitely favourable to the League and its work.

Progress has not been so rapid in the case of elementary-school-readers and books of selected extracts used in secondary schools. Nevertheless, a certain number already contain pages dealing with the League and international understanding.

It is to be hoped that the books for school and post-school libraries, prize books and young people's illustrated papers will also contain information on these subjects.

As regards instruction by means of lantern slides, the *Musée Pédagogique* despatches free of charge to teachers in the public schools various sets of views, with comments, supplied by "La Paix par le Droit". From October 1928 to March 1929, sets were forwarded to thirty-five different localities — each set being utilised as a rule by several schools in the same district and by several classes in each school.

The *Conseil national des Femmes* sends similar sets to any school or other association making application. It also sends a film accompanied by a model lecture.

3. *International Relations.*

(a) *Between teachers.* — International relations in their professional aspect — the only side of the question to which it is possible to refer in this report — may be established between individuals or organisations.

The former are encouraged by means of travelling scholarships (David Weill scholarships, Albert Kahn "Around the World" scholarships, etc.), by missions sent to other countries, and by the exchange of teachers. These exchanges are most usual among the staffs of higher educational establishments. They are less frequent among secondary and higher elementary teachers and are mainly confined to modern-language masters

and mistresses. They are naturally very rare among elementary-school-teachers.

The collective journeys undertaken by teachers attending international congresses enable them to make the acquaintance of their colleagues of other nationalities. For instance, in April 1928, after the Berlin Congress, a pacifist propaganda and professional and social study-tour in Central Europe was undertaken by the forty-seven representatives of the *Syndicat national des Institutrices et Instituteurs publics de France et des Colonies*. In this connection we would mention that M. Buisson, who received a Nobel Peace Prize in 1927, has just bequeathed the amount of the prize, namely, 300,000 francs, to the State. The interest on the "Ferdinand Buisson Fund" is to be used for making the League of Nations known to elementary and secondary school-children and to the public in general. Grants will also be made to university graduates, especially to those who are elementary school teachers, to enable them to attend international congresses, particularly the congresses of the International Federation of Teachers' Associations, and also to publish any documents which are likely to promote the establishment of world peace.

(b) *Between young people.* — We have endeavoured to encourage international relations more particularly between young people.

(1) *Correspondence betwen different countries.*

This may take place between individual school-children or may be collective. The organisation of the former kind of correspondence has its headquarters at the *Musée Pédagogique*. The principal correspondents of French school-children and students (in elementary schools, higher elementary schools, training colleges and lycées) are of American, British, Czechoslovak, German, Italian and Polish nationality. During the school year of 1927-1928, correspondence was exchanged by 32,110 French children with school-children in other countries. Collective correspondence is organised by the French section of the Junior Red Cross. It is often accompanied by the exchange of presents, consisting principally of articles made by groups of pupils. Between January 1928 and January 1929, French school-children corresponded with twenty-five foreign countries. Finally, messages have also been exchanged for the past two years with Welsh school-children by the very up-to-date method of wireless — by means of the "World Wireless Message

of the Children of Wales ". In 1927, 288 French children replied and, in 1928, 1,000.

(2) *Inter-school cxchanges.*

Inter-school exchanges are principally effected :

(*a*) Through the *Office national des Universités et Ecoles françaises à l'étranger*, 96, Boulevard Raspail, Paris, which deals mainly with the exchange of men and women students — between France and America, Austria, Germany and Great Britain more particularly. As a rule, the students spend one year in the schools or universities to which they are sent.

(*b*) Through the *Comité d'échanges interscolaires franco-allemands*, which deals with the exchange of boys and girls from all public and private schools during the holidays (minimum age, fourteen). In August-September 1928, this body arranged for 205 French children to spend their holidays in Germany.

(3) *Scouting and International Camps.*

Scouting in all its forms is on the increase in France.

The *Scouts de France* (30,000 members), *Eclaireurs de France* (3,000 members), *Eclaireurs unionistes* (8,000 members), *Eclaireurs israélites*, *Eclaireuses*, *Girl Guides* are active groups which by their *esprit de corps*, their correspondence with similar foreign groups, the organisation of their camps, and even their uniforms and songs are helping to develop among their members a spirit of international co-operation and peace.

Camps of boy-scouts and French *éclaireurs* receive foreign guests and are in their turn invited to foreign camps ; during the coming holidays, from 1,500 to 2,000 French boys will take part in the *Jamboree* to be held near Liverpool, which will be attended by 30,000 young people representing forty-two nationalities.

Since 1921 our general holiday camp association has received nearly 900 foreign guests of Belgian, British, Czecho-slovak, Polish and Serbian nationality (who came in groups), as well as individual children belonging to sixteen different antionalities.

In 1928 the *Fédération des Jeunesses laïques de France* organised a seaside holiday camp at Sète (Hérault), which was open at a low charge to French and foreign boys from nine to eighteen years of age, from July 20th to September 20th.

In addition to scouting proper and its international camps, special mention must also be made of the camps run by *La Paix par la Jeunesse* (Bierville), and by the *Volontaires de la Paix*, the first of which was held in 1928 and was attended by forty-four *volontaires*, and the second at Easter 1929 in preparation for the *Croisade de la Jeunesse par la Paix* (August 16th-31st, 1929). This is a specialised form of scouting, the object of which is to train young people to work on behalf of the organisation of peace. The first words of the volunteer's enrolment form are : " In all sincerity and freedom, I declare that I regard all men as brothers and that, like all young people throughout the world who are striving for the same ideal, I wish to be strong, loyal, pure, brave and obedient, so that I may assist in the work of peace ".

(4) *Young Foreigners in France.*

Since the war our secondary schools and colleges for boys and girls in Paris and in certain provincial towns have received each year a considerable number of pupils of all nationalities. There are also foreign scholarship-holders at our training colleges. Thus in 1927-1928 the Sèvres Training College had two Americans, one Serbian, one Bulgarian, one Egyptian and one Costa-Rican.

Foreign University students, however, mainly attend the courses at the Paris and provincial faculties. This gives rise to various problems: the determination of the equivalence between University degrees in the various countries ; the organisation of courses and lectures ; the creation of professorships. Attention has had to be given to receiving these young people and providing them with accommodation and moral protection. For this purpose the *Cité universitaire* was established, and this is growing daily. The French house which is the centre of the *Cité* accommodates 280 men and 60 women of French nationality; its Canadian house, 40 students ; its Belgian house, 210 students, a few of whom are French. The United States, Japanese, Indo-Chinese, Dutch and Armenian foundations are now being built. Numerous projects are about to be realised of interest to Swedish, Spanish, British, Brazilian, Czechoslovak, Serbian and Hungarian students and the students of several South American Republics. The Argentine house will be opened shortly. During the holidays, the French house receives foreign students and teachers (it has already received Americans,

British, Germans, Dutch and Roumanians), who are given a simple and cordial welcome. The visitors come back again later as friends and invite French students whose acquaintance they have made to visit their countries. The *Cité universitaire* intends to organise each year fêtes and meetings and lectures on the League and international questions.

Various lay and religious groups have been formed for the purpose of giving financial assistance to foreign students, such as the *Amitiés catholiques françaises* and their *Œuvre des bourses pour les étudiants étrangers*.

For their moral welfare, study circles and international centres (denominational and undenominational), which are also centres of international relations, have been established.

III. Application.

After briefly indicating the principal means at our disposal for making the League of Nations known to young people and developing in them the spirit of international co-operation, we should have liked to be able to explain exactly how these means are applied at the various educational stages and in different circles. This is not possible, however, at the present time ; the undertaking is far too vast, too delicate and too recent. We are not yet sure of ourselves, and this is not surprising.

In the public schools, a lecture is always given to the pupils on the League of Nations on Armistice Day and lessons on the League are included in the curricula. Besides this the subject is dealt with in a number of other ways which vary according to the teacher and the school. In some schools correspondence is regularly exchanged, and this may possibly lead the pupils to visit other countries or to receive visits from their correspondents. In others, handwork is exchanged with foreign school-children. Pupils were prepared for the drawing competition opened in 1928 for the illustration of the articles of the " Geneva Children's Charter ". Instruction also takes the form of reading and commenting on the maxims at the end of the chapters in the " Manual of Civics and Moral Training ", of lessons given as the opportunity arises and of keen and sustained discussions. Some schools have organised a section of the *Ligue de Bonté*, a section of the *Groupement universitaire en faveur de la Société des Nations*, a troop of boy-scouts, or have arranged for their pupils to attend a holiday camp. Other schools again have adopted several of these methods.

It will be enough to give a few examples.

On my asking the principal of a large private school to tell me what means he was using to make the League of Nations known to his pupils, he gave me the following information :

" 1. Every year a lecture on the work of the League during the past twelve months is given to the whole school assembled in the great hall. These lectures have been given regularly for the last five years.

" 2. Our group of Rovers (*Eclaireurs de France*) is making a special study of international questions. Three lectures have been devoted to the League, one to Franco-Italian relations and the attitude of the Press in the two countries, and another to an analysis of M. de Vibraye's book : 'Où mène le Nationalisme'. This will show the active interest taken by the school in all questions relating to the League and the vital problem of the improvement of the international relations. "

As regards the training colleges for elementary-school-teachers, mention should be made of the steps taken by the principals and lecturers on their own initiative. These include fêtes, lectures on behalf of the League, the encouragement of correspondence with school-children in other countries and the development of a liking for travel. Notwithstanding the difficulties involved, some principals and lecturers take their students to Geneva. The principal of the Women's Training College at La Rochelle, indeed, visited Geneva with a whole class of 28 students.

Mention should also be made of the competitive examination among men and women students in training colleges, organised at the instance of the *Conseil national des Femmes françaises*. This examination was held for the first time in 1927 for students in the Paris University area. In 1928 it was held in the Aix, Dijon, Grenoble and Lyons areas. It has just been held for a third time (April 11th and 12th, 1929) among students in the training colleges of the Algiers, Bordeaux, Clermont-Ferrand, Montpellier and Toulouse areas. In two years' time it will probably have been held in the training colleges of all our University areas.

The conditions governing this examination were finally laid down in a circular from the Director of Elementary Educa-

tion (1929). This circular relates to the syllabus, the nature[1] and length of the tests, the constitution of the examining board and penalties for non-observance of the conditions.

The two students who obtain the highest marks are given a travelling scholarship enabling them to visit the various organisations of the League at the expense of the *Conseil national des Femmes*. On their return they are required to submit a report to the President of the Council.

These students continue to keep in touch with the Council. One of the scholarship-holders writes : "I have communicated (to my friends) notes, documents and pamphlets obtained during my visit to Geneva, and I feel certain that in their turn they will become active propagandists for the League in their own circle and among their own pupils. I add for my younger pupils (from 7 to 8 years of age) very simple moral talks, in which I endeavour to inspire them with a horror of war. . . and to make them realise the necessity of setting up machinery for the equitable settlement of disputes and of abiding by the decisions rendered . . . I hope that, as time goes on, I shall be able to do more. It seems to me that the right place for a study of the League of Nations is in the moral philosophy and history courses, because it is less important to explain the actual organisation of the League than to tell children what it has done already, and to make them realise the beauty of the ideal of justice and peace for which it is striving. Children are quite capable of appreciating this."

As a final example, I will mention the efforts made since 1927 at the *Ecole normale supérieure de Sèvres* to instruct intending teachers in high schools and colleges for girls.

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[1] The examination consists of two written tests. The subjects for 1929 were as follows :

First paper (4 hours) :

" In his closing speech (1928) M. Zahle, Danish delegate, President of the League Assembly, remarked : I feel that there is already a strong guarantee of peace in these new methods of international frankness, of freedom of judgment and direct discussion between the countries concerned, in an Assembly whose unanimous desire it is to mitigate antagonism and to remove causes of conflict.

" Compare international relations as defined above with those established between European countries during a former period of modern or contemporary history of which you have made a special study. "

Second paper (2 hours) (Lesson to pupils attending the Supplementary Course) :

" Why should France support the League of Nations ? Does this institution correspond to her aspirations as well as to her interests ? "

The Sèvres College receives information from the *Comité national d'études sociales et politiques* and displays the Committee's daily bulletins.

Since October 1926, it has had its own information centre for the study, among other questions, of the League of Nations.

Since October 1927, chiefly owing to the Secretary-General of the *Union des Associations françaises pour la Société des Nations*, various lectures have been given at the College to appreciative listeners, comprising the majority of the College students and staff. Lectures have been given on the following subjects :

Lecture on the Organisation of the Information Service	M. PRUDHOMMEAUX
Origin and Organisation of the League of Nations.	M. AULARD
The Working of the League. . . .	M. G. SCELLE
National Minorities.	M. Th. RUYSSEN
The League of Nations from the British Point of View	Mr. A. ZIMMERN
Intellectual Co-operation	M. BOUGLÉ
Latin America and the League . .	M. Th. RUYSSEN
The Organisation of the International Labour Office.	M. MAURETTE

In addition to this instruction, we would mention the work of the " Study Group ", which has been voluntarily formed by the students themselves.

The work of going through the bulletins, reviews, newspapers and books sent out by the Information Centre is assigned to the various members of the " Study Group ", who investigate the questions selected by them. These questions are as follows :

" Attitude of certain countries to the League of Nations ; the Far East and the League of Nations ; the " Anschluss " ; the most important economic treaties ; disarmament ; the social work of the League. "

Plenary meetings are organised periodically at which an account of the work is given to students who are not members of the " Group ".

The work for the year 1927-1928 was brought to a fitting close by the visit to Geneva in August and September last of five students of the College. Of these students, three were scholarship-holders of the *Union des Associations pour la Société des Nations*, and two of the *Bureau d'études internationales*.

When the College re-assembled in 1928, the two latter gave an account of their month's stay at Geneva to the whole College. On hearing their report on the spirit of international co-operation based on their own observations and experiences, their attentive and interested audience was able to see how much this visit had enriched their minds, and the Principal of the College said she hoped that other Sèvres students would have a similar opportunity. During the coming holidays, three students will spend eight weeks at Geneva.

During the year 1928-1929, our League of Nations " Study Group " was asked to undertake a new task : the training of Sèvres students for their future work of instructing pupils in the aims and organisation of the League. A special questionnaire was circulated to pupils of the lycée attached to the College and unofficially to those of several provincial lycées. The replies obtained, which have been sorted and classified by the " Study Group ", show the extent of their young authors' knowledge of the League, their sentiments and readiness at the present time to interest themselves in international co-operation. These replies are to form the basis of a general study of theoretical and practical questions : the definition of the spirit of international co-operation and its connection with national education ; obstacles to its development ; the examination and selection of suitable means of developing this spirit according to the age of the children, their possibilities and surroundings ; the drawing-up of a programme of instruction concerning the League, and the spirit of international co-operation ; the proposed application of these means in the lycée at Sèvres with the assistance of the Sèvres students ; an account of these educational activities in the *Revue de l'Enseignement secondaire des Jeunes Filles.*

The whole of this latter part of the work is still in course of preparation. Its application will begin in October 1929.

To these examples others could be added.

Nevertheless, they will suffice to show that, as stated at the beginning of this article, a slow experimental effort, based on conviction and active goodwill, is being undertaken, and it is gradually extending its range and assuming definite organised shape.

Anna AMIEUX,
Principal of the Higher Training
College for Women Teachers in Secondary Schools.

DENMARK

It is not necessary to describe in detail the steps taken by the Danish authorities to make known the League of Nations and to develop the spirit of international co-operation among children and young people, since the relevant information will be found in the official reports from the Danish Government. It is sufficient to state that the League of Nations has been introduced into the schools, and that the teachers have been requested to include the existence and the work of the League in the courses on history and sociology.

The next question is : What is the value of the instruction ? In this respect it will probably be of some interest to explain in a few words the general attitude in Denmark towards the League of Nations. In the first place, it can be stated that the ideals of the League are met here with general approval. Almost everyone in Denmark will agree that international co-operation is desirable to the widest extent. Denmark being a small country without aggressive national ambitions, everything is to be gained and nothing lost through the realisation of the ideals of the League, and no objection will be encountered against the propagation of these ideals *as ideals*. The difference of opinion arises regarding the possibility of their realisation in a reasonable future or in any future, and as to whether this theoretical approval should lead the nation to take steps which, to some extent, presuppose the realisation of the League ideas or the stability of League decisions.

It will be understood that, when it is a question of strengthening the League with public opinion, it is not so much the support of League ideas as confidence in the value and the validity of its activities that is of importance.

When the above criterion is applied to the schools, it will be realised that one of the principal tasks of the authorities is to make it possible for the teachers to explain to the children the actual work done by the League. The Ministry of Instruction has, in the last two years, sent out to the schools short summaries of the activities of the League in the past years. These summaries have especially mentioned the following subjects :

1926.

1. The entry of Germany into the League.
2. The settling of the Mosul question.
3. The work of the Preparatory Committee for the Disarmament Conference.
4. Financial reconstruction work in Danzig and in Estonia.
5. The relief of Armenian, Bulgarian, Greek and Russian refugees.
6. The work carried on in connection with the protection of children, the white slave traffic and the opium trade.

1927.

1. The resolution on aggressive war.
2. The resolution on arbitration.
3. The World Economic Conference.
4. The health work, especially in the East, in Australia and in South America.

The next question is that of the capacity of the teachers to make use of this information and to impress it on the children. Here, there is obviously a great difficulty. The information supplied is of an extremely dry character, consisting of abstracts from what are themselves merely official statements, and it is not easy for the teacher to pour sufficient life into them. It would be valuable if information of quite a different character from that contained in the official publications could be made available. It is detail that gives life ; moreover, only a limited number of the subjects are of such a character as to be really serviceable for purposes of instruction. The kind of material one could wish to have is a detailed description of the results obtained in a few of the fields of the League work and to some extent also of the difficulties surmounted. These fields should of course be chosen from the point of view of their teaching value. One might especially dwell on the health and humanitarian activities of the League and on the cases where serious international difficulties have been overcome through the agency of the League.

It is probably impossible to give information of any value as to how this League instruction has been received by the children and young people. The system has been in operation too short a time and the conditions in the schools are too various. Moreover, it must be remembered that the school is only one of

the influences to which the older children are subjected. If we were to find out that the young people in Denmark had taken up, to a noticeable extent, an attitude either of confidence in the League or of scepticism, it could probably be traced back to the general political opinion in the circles to which they belong and to their newspapers rather than to the school. In this connection it can be mentioned that one of the Copenhagen newspapers (*Politiken*) has arranged competitions for the best answers to questions concerning the League. This also leads to the conclusion that the work done in the schools should be information as to actual activity rather than propaganda regarding ideals, as this information work can be carried on independently of the political influences that affect the homes of the children.

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS AS A SUBJECT OF STUDY IN PRUSSIAN SCHOOLS.[1]

On May 28th, 1927, the Prussian Minister of Science, Art and Education[2] issued a Decree which marked the first definite step towards making instruction in the subject of the League of Nations a part of the curriculum in German schools. The Decree reads as follows :

> " The instructions to be observed in framing the curricula of the higher schools in Prussia, the regulations regarding the intermediate schools in Prussia, and the instructions relating to the curricula for the upper classes of elementary schools already contain numerous directions with reference to the teaching of League of Nations questions. Now that Germany is a Member of the League, however, the schools should go still further and give full instruction in the character, work and aims of that institution. It is essential from the very nature of the League that instruction in this field should be inspired alike by an appreciation of the dignity of our own nation, by understanding and respect for foreign nations, and by a realisation of the fact that the development of each individual nation is promoted by membership of an all-embracing community. I direct that the subject should be given a suitable place in the programme of work and be dealt with in the above spirit in the higher classes of the elementary schools, in the intermediate and higher schools, in training colleges for teachers, and in the training of candidates for the higher posts in the educational service. "

[1] Parts of this report have been published in German in the German League of Nations Society *Bulletin*.

[2] As long ago as August 19th, 1922, the Prussian Minister for Trade and Industry asked that the subject of civics, as taught in vocational and technical schools, should include instruction " on the League of Nations as a community of self-determining nations based on morality and law ".

This Decree, which attracted widespread attention both in Germany and abroad, has given a strong and lasting impulse to the study of the subject in Prussian schools of every kind. The reports which the competent administrations and *Provinzial-schulkollegien* have prepared on the basis of the individual reports received by them from the schools in their respective areas afford ample proof of this. These reports were prepared in response to a request from the Prussian Educational Administration dated March 24th, 1928, *i.e.*, barely a year after the publication of the original Decree — a circumstance which should not be overlooked.

The general tenor of these reports must strike all who are interested in this important problem as most significant. The impression they convey may be described briefly as follows: Though there has not, of course, been time enough for the instruction on the subject of the League to have produced visible results, and though such results under the circumstances could hardly be anticipated, the work has, nevertheless, progressed beyond all expectation. The first effect of the Decree has been to ensure the co-operation of a very much larger number of persons in the work in all parts of the country. What is still more important and satisfactory, however, is that the instruction given is very thorough. In addition, many teachers are raising this question at professional conferences; they are not merely handling it in a more or less formal manner in compliance with the Decree, but are taking it up with the enthusiasm and devotion which its importance demands. The great danger that the Decree might be nullified by a sort of passive resistance on the part of teachers who, while obeying the letter of the instructions, are out of sympathy with the subject, is fully recognised. In very few cases, however, have they taken a narrow or one-sided view. The question is not treated with enthusiasm so exuberant as to be unbalanced and harmful, nor, on the other hand, is there any failure to recognise the duties incumbent upon the nation in view of its history and traditions. It is true that everywhere the historical and philosophical background of the question tends to appear; but, though the nature and activities of the League in its present form are often sharply criticised, cases where the League idea is absolutely rejected are very rare. It must be remembered in this connection that, even where the teacher is favourably disposed towards the subject, existing circumstances sometimes make it far from easy for him to accept the idea as such, to advocate it, and to win

over the rising generation, which is apt to put very searching questions. Even though the reports say little on the point, it must be admitted that there are teachers who are unable to overcome this difficulty. Teachers and scholars alike are almost entirely in sympathy with the *idea* of the League. This I can say because the authorities have shown me the critical reports as well as the others. It is true that no new arguments are put forward. Any criticism passed on the League in its present form is submitted in a serious and dignified spirit with a full appreciation of the value of the fundamental idea. This is notably the case with the reports from the occupied and frontier areas. We may instance the attitude of the head-master of a small country school on the Rhine, who writes as follows :

> " The period that has elapsed is too short to allow of any extensive experience being obtained. Nevertheless, as a result of the Decree, more care and attention are being devoted in the schools to League of Nations questions. The teaching staff has gladly undertaken this task because the League is an institution intended to bring about the triumph of peace over war, of love over hate — in short, the establishment of a system of practical Christianity . . . The school should not rest content, however, with the introduction and teaching of this new subject. The aim must be to permeate the whole of the school-teaching with the League spirit . . . It is to be hoped that the time is not far distant when, besides the day of national mourning in each country, there will be a universal League of Nations day. "

The attitude towards "obligatory" instruction on the League is worthy of note ; we can only concur with those who see danger in making this instruction compulsory, since such a course would undoubtedly do more harm than good.

Where the League idea is rejected by the school-children themselves, the reason is generally to be found in antagonistic influences in the home. The following information comes from a small village in the north :

> " N.N. is a very conservative-minded village, and the children naturally tend to adopt the political views of their parents when they are old enough to do so ; this makes it very difficult here to create a belief in the League of Nations as a really serious institution. Children and parents alike, however, place full trust in me, and I hope to win them over

to a more favourable view of international reconciliation by occasional explanatory talks in school and on parents' evenings . . . "

The views of an important school authority in the occupied area, where the obstacles are naturally most formidable, are of special interest both from the psychological and from the political standpoint. In this report it is stated :

" The psychological difficulties which come to light when League questions are discussed with the school-children are more serious. In this question, which has stirred the whole of the German people to its depths, the children are influenced by their homes and their environment, and are swayed by the political opinions expressed in their presence, often with passionate intensity. For that reason it is difficult at first to get them to consider the matter in a cool and impartial spirit. The teacher must display great tact and wisdom and possess a sound grasp of his subject if he is to overcome the innate resistance of the scholar and to keep politics out of the discussion. That this subject should be treated on non-political lines is universally regarded as vital. The most practicable means of attaining this end and of winning over the individual allegiance of the scholar to the cause of the League is, in the first place, to take up the moral aspect of the idea, which appeared early in the history of mankind, and to show its historical development, emphasising in particular the part played by leading German thinkers.

" School-children, particularly German children in the occupied area, see only too clearly, in the case of the League, how widely the idea differs from the reality. Indeed, the circumstance that mainly alienates the children from the League idea is the occupation of the Rhineland by the Allies. The inconsistency between the League idea and the continuance of the occupation, even after Germany's entry into the League, makes the young mind sceptical and critical of the greatness and nobility of the idea itself. Thus the teacher has very definite difficulties with which to contend when he is dealing with the work and the duties of the League. Nevertheless, it is clear from the school reports that the children as a whole — there are certainly exceptions — are sympathetic and keenly interested ; that, in the end, they cannot escape the inner logic of the idea ; that, despite all the painful inadequacy of the League's action as far as we

Germans and Rhinelanders in particular are concerned, the idea has taken root in the hearts of the young ; and that the value of Germany's entry into the League for her position in the world is duly recognised. As regards the individual activities of the League, the greatest interest is felt in those that are non-political, and this is true of boys and girls alike. "

A report from another place in the occupied area emphasises the fact that,

" At first, the young people in our frontier area, who feel every day the burden of the occupation, showed, generally speaking, very little appreciation of the League question — that is to say, the League as originally constituted by the Treaty of Peace of Versailles ; but in view of the object-lesson of the occupation, which is constantly before the eyes of our population and of our young people, it was easy to awaken interest in the real League, the League that is in the making. Reports of similar successes are to hand from every district . . . "

The general impression is that young people are more favourably disposed towards the fundamental principle of the League than they were some years ago, and it is evident that the schools have been largely successful in their endeavour to awaken the interest of the younger generation in the League. Indeed, we constantly find that they feel an active and even passionate interest in League questions. Children of ten to fifteen years of age are already asking for instruction in this subject ; they bring newspaper-cuttings and pictures which lead them to enquire into League questions. Often the interest of the parents themselves in these matters is awakened by their children, and the one-sided influence of the home on the political development of the child is corrected by an acquaintance with the many-sided activities recorded in the Press. It is noteworthy that greater interest is felt in towns than in the country. In one town, indeed, a number of schools already celebrate a special League day (May 18th).

Instruction is imparted incidentally as well as on systematic lines, both in the form of regular lessons and in voluntary group study. Often the aim is not merely to impart information, but to utilise the instruction for the purpose of strengthening the will and forming character. The greatest value is attached to

the moral aspect of this instruction, to the formation of a proper mental attitude towards other nations. The reports from a number of elementary schools as well as from higher educational institutions offer admirable examples, showing how sound a grasp of the subject has been attained and how thoroughly it is taught.

Fortunately, the task is not looked upon as an entirely new chapter with new subject-matter, but as a constructive element pervading the whole educational system. In many cases the significance of the subject in its relations with the past is admirably brought out. Valuable help has been obtained from the religious teaching of the two denominations and from the ethical character of the reading lessons given in connection with the ordinary German teaching. In many places the community idea has been directed more definitely than formerly towards the conception of international solidarity. Practical effect is given to this idea through the exchange of letters and schoolwork. The reports contain accounts of correspondence with schools in France, the United States of America, the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes and even Japan. Here and there the study of Esperanto is introduced for this purpose.

Actual information on the subject of the League may be imparted either incidentally, during the teaching of other subjects, or by means of definite courses of lessons. In most cases both methods are adopted. As regards the incidental method, the review of the week's happenings, which appears in the curriculum of many elementary schools, or "newspaper" lessons (mostly at the end of the week), are frequently utilised for the purpose. Often there is no attempt to go into matters of technical detail ; the aim is rather to bring out the fundamental idea of the League, as opportunity arises, in the study of history, the various questions being given a "living interest by being placed in their historical setting", or in the teaching of geography or of ethical subjects, care being taken to select suitable starting-points for discussion. For systematic instruction regarding the League, the second lower (U II) and first upper (O I) classes are suggested as suitable, teaching being given either continuously or at the end of the half-year. The first-named class might deal with the origin and external organisation of the League in connection with the study of the Treaty of Versailles and of modern times, while the upper class could extend its study of the subject to a systematic discussion

of the problem of world peace, the League and the community of nations. It is remarkable that practically no mention at all is made of the possibility of enlisting the sympathies of school-children for the League by a purely objective study of the bare facts of the subject. On the contrary, every effort is made to find suitable opportunities of discussing the League in connection with all subjects — religion, teaching of German and foreign languages, history and geography, and even natural science.

The opportunities that present themselves are manifold. As one teacher writes : "Every teacher who is in earnest can find suitable starting-points". Opportunities are afforded by every subject in the curriculum. Events of the day are mentioned (Nobile, the Zeppelin flight, transoceanic flights, international sport in every form, the Nobel Prize, American endowments for the University of Heidelberg, the Press Exhibition at Cologne, visits from foreign sovereigns and statesmen, messages of condolence, public lectures on international law and international peace) ; events in local school life (international trains speeding past the child's home, the activities of local training-colleges for missionaries, letters from emigrant families) the reading of newspapers, notable events in connection with the League itself and international politics. At the same time, it is realised that there is a latent danger in this method ; care should be taken not to utilise indiscriminately every opportunity that occurs, or to make such occasions a matter of pure entertainment.

The chief requisites for school teaching on the subject of the League are zeal on the part of the teacher and complete familiarity with the subject. This applies to teachers of all subjects. It is satisfactory to find that the new training colleges for teachers clearly realise the importance and necessity of giving future elementary school teachers a grounding in the substance and the spirit of this subject. Similarly, as regards the introductory studies of student lecturers — the future teachers at the higher educational institutes — it is emphasised that the aim can be achieved only if instruction of this kind is introduced unobtrusively and organically as part of their general pedagogic and scientific training. Opportunities of introducing the subject are afforded during the first half-year in the introductory compulsory lectures on sociology, science and economics. If, as is stated in one report, the teacher not only realises that it is his duty to inculcate the moral value of the idea but is also

able to criticise it in a scientific spirit, there is every reason to believe that an earnest desire will be awakened for active co-operation in the development of the new international organisation. Moreover, in most training colleges, the optional work affords the students an opportunity of going further into the problem. Lastly, it is arranged that, in the work of training students to be elementary-school teachers, the League idea is inculcated both as a principle underlying the instruction and training, and also in a comprehensive advanced course in history. This affords a particularly good opportunity not so much of combating antipathy — antipathy hardly exists — as of overcoming ignorance of the subject attributable to the fact that, until recently, there was no literature on the subject suitable for schools and school-children. In this field the training college for teachers can give both oral and written instruction and enlightenment to teachers in elementary schools, win them over to the League idea and thus sow the seeds of interest in the minds of all who are still indifferent.

In the training of student lecturers, also, the League is not regarded by the authors of the reports as a subject that can or should be organised on a systematic basis as part of the pedagogic training. It would take up too much time and the object in view would be obtruded too obviously. In the general introductory training in pedagogy and in the methods of teaching individual subjects, particularly those connected with German history, the German language, etc., frequent opportunities arise of considering manifold aspects of League questions and questions of international reconciliation. These in themselves cover the whole subject, so that there is no need for more systematic treatment. In many cases the programmes organised provide a comprehensive view of the question. As regards the treatment of the history of education, mention may be made of the possibilities of introducing the League when discussing education in the early years of Christianity and in the Middle Ages (St. Augustine, St. Thomas Aquinas, Dante), in the period of humanism (Grotius and Suarez), in the age of reason (Rousseau, Hume and Kant), and in connection with the new humanism and the pedagogic movement of to-day. Further opportunities occur in the treatment of educational aims, questions of school organisation (minority schools), teaching methods in individual subjects, the teaching of history with reference both to its educational aim and to the individual methods employed, the teaching of religion (St. Augustine, the Church in the Middle

Ages, the Epistle to the Romans, the Pauline Christian International, etc.), the teaching of geography (intimate economic relations between the nations, the international regulation of traffic and of commerce, and racial questions), and, lastly, the teaching of German, where a very great deal can be done to advance the study of the question by a suitable selection of reading material.

The extent to which the problem is being grappled with in the training of student lecturers may be seen from the records of various seminar classes of men and women student lecturers. One local seminar held special classes to deal with these questions from a particular and from the general standpoint. Here is the brief report of the proceedings :

> " At a meeting of the history class, a woman student read a short paper on the aims and organisation of the League of Nations and on various historical documents in which the fundamental idea may be described as a kind of preliminary step towards the League itself. In the discussion that followed, mention was made of the creed of pacifism and its possibilities of realisation, of Romain Rolland as one of its pioneers, of the duty of women, their right to a share in political work for peace, and the necessity of educating young people in a spirit of international reconciliation.
>
> " At the third general meeting, the discussion started from the problem of the apparent discrepancy between national consciousness and internationalism, national sentiment and cosmopolitanism. That this discrepancy is only an apparent one was revealed by an analysis of cosmopolitanism in its classical form, represented in the work of the great German protagonists of idealism (cf., more especially Herder's conception of individual nations as organs of mankind), and by a consideration of the historical link between the evolution of German national sentiment and the world of German idealist thought (cf., the moral outlook of the Prussian reformers in their relation to Kant and Fichte). The idea of international reconciliation and co-operation in the service of a cultural ideal was found to be wholly consistent with a love of country and with a readiness to enlist all the powers of the individual in the service of his State. The value of cultural exchanges between the nations and the special importance of these exchanges for the German people can be shown with particular clearness in the teaching of

the ordinary German subjects (*e.g.*, Gothic architecture, classical poetry, etc.). The discussion was closed with the reading of the conclusion of the speech delivered by the Minister of Science, Art and Education on April 13th, 1928. "

I regret that there is no space here for further seminar reports of a similar fundamental nature — reports showing the thorough grasp of this important problem which young teachers are obtaining.

A general review of the reports submitted reveals the need for further light to be thrown on the subject. In the near future steps will have to be taken to define more closely the aim and the methods to be employed (incidental and systematic instruction, definition of subject-matter, arrangement of material and apportionment of time). A large number of teachers would like to have further guidance as regards the practical treatment of League of Nations questions for teaching purposes. This is, however, a matter which requires to be carefully considered before any definite action is taken.

It is symptomatic of the keen interest taken by teachers in this question that a very large number of individual requests are made. It is desired, for example, that books, films, photographs and diagrams should be specifically mentioned. Books and pamphlets are asked for on the subject of Germany's work in the League, with concrete examples from the past work and achievements of the League. It is rightly emphasised that mere theoretical discussion is of no use for educational purposes. The League itself might, it is suggested, publish pamphlets giving an account of its work in the previous year. There might be a central office to collect League documents, speeches and resolutions and issue them in a form suitable for use in schools (school-readers) ; French and English texts are also asked for. The request for an international journal dealing with the League is also worthy of note. Schools, it is urged, should be informed of important publications issued by the League Secretariat on school and educational questions. Other requests relate to a suitable textbook for teachers, courses of study, exchanges, reports on courses, financial assistance for journeys to Geneva, exchanges of pictures and of experiences of the League's work in other countries, help for the youth movement (camps, scouts). One noteworthy and very frequent request is that school-children should have placed in their hands, besides the Constitution of the Reich, a short account of the

most important documents of the League, such as the Covenant.

A large number of hints and suggestions are also given in addition to these requests. Thus it is suggested that the subject-matter of history should be reviewed with special reference to the League ; subjects for essays on League questions are suggested, and also on specific activities of the League (though only as optional subjects for the higher classes). Further suggestions are that the League should be treated more fully in study circles, that prize competitions should be organised dealing with the League, that an account should be given of the positive achievements of the League, that the possibilities inherent in the Covenant should be investigated, and that the work being done in other countries in respect of instruction on the subject of the League should be recorded.

Even a cursory examination of the numerous reports must convince the most sceptical critic that the idea of introducing instruction regarding the League in the curricula of schools of all kinds is making very real progress. The authors of the reports are quite right when they point out that there has as yet been no time for tangible results to be achieved. Yet much has been done through the very fact that teachers as a body have been interested in the problem, that they recognise its importance, that they have seriously taken it up and are endeavouring to get a true understanding of it.

I would draw attention to one very serious statement which has been made in this connection :

> " We school-teachers, who recognise that progress in the world to-day is closely bound up with the economic and political unity of the world, which has been brought about through the application of steam and electricity to trade and industry and to almost every other form of activity, constantly feel impelled to ask whether our teaching is in harmony with these unmistakable facts and with the requirements of our moral world outlook to-day. As regards externals, the material progress made is bringing the peoples of the world ever closer together. One of the chief tasks of the school to-day is surely to bring into being, on the same lines as this *rapprochement* of external things, a *rapprochement* of ideals.
>
> The work will broaden and deepen, and produce its effects, in the quietude of the school. This can only be, of

course, if external political conditions do not destroy faith in the League's work and in international co-operation in the minds of the young and their teachers, who are peculiarly sensitive in this matter. If this were to happen, the educational authorities and the schools, with the best will in the world, would be powerless. "

Dr. Wilhelm SCHELLBERG,
Councillor of the Prussian Ministry of Science, Art and Education.

INTERNATIONAL THOUGHT AND EDUCATION IN NEW ZEALAND.

The head of a New Zealand University College, on returning from a year spent in the British Isles, Europe and America, said that New Zealand was living in a backwater and in danger of failing in the responsibility of making a contribution to world movement as a nation among nations. This carries the more weight as coming from a man not readily drawn into bold statements on public affairs. He followed it up with searching criticisms of our educational system as lagging behind the most vital movements in other parts of the world.

This is in striking contrast to the idea frequently heard abroad, and perhaps fairly generally held in New Zealand, that we lead the world in experimental legislation and in educational benefits. In the first flush of a radical liberal period some thirty years ago this reputation was not undeserved ; but in later years we have not altogether escaped the temptation to live on it. Certainly it would be a mistake to generalise from certain features, such as compulsory arbitration of disputes for a part of the country's industries, that New Zealand is enraptured of all forward movements in the world. It is a popular fallacy that all young countries are inevitably youthful, optimistic and adventurous in their outlook. Using the term in its normal non-political sense, we might safely say that New Zealand is on the whole conservative.

This reveals itself in our international outlook and consequently in the relation of education to international affairs. All bare statements of what is or is not laid down by educational authorities must be regarded in the light of this conservative tendency if we are to get at real values. Moreover, where " free secular and compulsory education " is an unimpeachable dogma, we must expect a tendency towards standardisation which, while it produces a fairly high degree of efficiency within a limited scope, generally restrains quick movement by pruning off the more vigorous growths of original enterprise.

How far, then, is it assured that the youth of New Zealand is being trained in knowledge of the League of Nations and the principles of international co-operation when our responsible

politicians rarely speak with anything but praise for the League, assert that our ideals are essentially for peace, make much of the signing of the Kellogg Pact, and, finally, express approval of the recommendations of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation regarding the instruction of youth? This depends on what is in the mind of representatives of public opinion when they make such hopeful statements. In spite of New Zealand's freedom from traditional fears, hatreds and passions such as hamper the growth of trust in Europe, the New Zealander will certainly not be found to go any further in his statements than the spokesmen of more stormy areas, nor does he mean any more by what he does say. He certainly does not throw his weight wholly and decisively on the side of international co-operation.

Conscious militarism or active anti-foreignism are practically non-existent; but there is still a strong disposition to regard preparation for war as a means of peace, and loyalty to the British tradition leans towards a certain misgiving about anything that might be called foreign. For instance, an eminent member of the late Government once spoke with hostility of the idea of yielding up a small measure of sovereign control to " a court of foreigners ", meaning thereby the Permanent Court of International Justice. Speaking in London in November 1926, the late Prime Minister, after saying that all knew that the most potent factor for peace was the ability to preserve it should the necessity arise, concluded: " New Zealand stands ready to take every step and to afford every encouragement that may forward the interests of the League, and the attainment of its ultimate goal, in so far as these do not impair the interests of the British Empire ". Here we see the characteristic misgiving about international co-operation. Debates in Parliament reveal the same attitude among a great majority of the members.

New Zealand is a young country, very much isolated in both an intellectual and a military sense. The population is almost wholly British-born or descended at no more than two or three generations from British emigrants. Thought is apt to follow the lines of British thought in the nineteenth century; hence the British Empire is apt to be its bounding limit. This intense devotion to the Imperial idea strikes all visitors and we are truly called more British than the British.

This is reinforced by our military isolation. New Zealand might not have been a British community but for British naval power in the nineteenth century. Then, in the period of

increasing international tension before the great war, when security by international co-operation was so far from everyone's thoughts, New Zealand naturally found its security in the British Navy. This is well illustrated by the increased monetary contribution to the Navy and the gift to the British Government of the battle-cruiser *New Zealand* in 1908. This faith in the British Navy has not passed with the dawn of the quest for security by co-operative guarantee.

Stress on the Empire and the Navy, being so strong in the popular and official mind, naturally still has its place in the education of youth and will be found side by side with the introduction of teaching on the League and international co-operation. To quote alone what is being done in the latter direction would not give a true sense of values.

With this in mind, we can cast a glance at the history section of the new syllabus recently adopted for primary schools, which provide for children from five and six to twelve, thirteen and fourteen years old.

In standards II and III — children of 8, 9 and 10 years — where the foundations of more systematic history teaching are laid by stories from history, the list of suggestions, which is not, however, restrictive, contains none connected with the League's work, many persons and incidents from which should prove attractive to young children — e.g., Dr. Nansen and his work, the stopping of Greco-Bulgarian hostilities, etc. The last few suggestions on the standard III list are : Captain Scott, Dr. Barnardo, Westminster Abbey, Heroic Incidents in the Great War, Our King, Anzac Day.

The first mention of the League comes in the standard V course. After the Napoleonic and great wars, which are described as " two attempts to secure world-power ", the Treaty of Versailles, the League of Nations, and the Kellogg Pact are laid down for treatment. This is one of nine sections in the year's course.

In standard VI mention is made of the humanitarian and social work of the League, while in standard VII, which at present scarcely exists, where there is provided a fairly comprehensive treatment of outstanding world movements and personages from 1603 onwards, we find mention of the League and the Mandate System among " foreign movements affecting the British Empire ".

It will be seen, then, that practically every child in the Dominion — for very few do not go through the primary schools —

should hear at least something of the League, though in many cases it may be a very inadequate something. On the other hand, it should be borne in mind that an organisation which enjoys a large measure of access to the schools states in its aims that the security of the British Empire depends solely on the Navy.

That new currents are stirring is, perhaps, evidenced by the fact that, following representations from educationalists, the aim laid down in the introduction to the history syllabus has been amended since the advance copy was published. To the original statement that the pupil " must be so taught that it shall be his joy and pride to play his part, however humble it may be, in the advancement of New Zealand and the Empire " has been added " and in the promotion of peace, wellbeing and happiness among the nations ". More encouraging still is the following extract from an appendix to the finally authorised syllabus. Read alone, however, it gives a very false impression:

> " The narrow nationalistic interpretation of history should be avoided ; international jealousies should not be aroused — a fatally easy course ; but there should be sedulously cultivated a strong faith in a more peaceful, harmonious and prosperous world. Frequent reference should be made in the higher classes to the constitution and activities of the League of Nations, and to some at least of the disputes that it has settled. One of the teacher's main aims should be to implant in the minds of his pupils a detestation of war as a means of settling international differences. On no account should too great emphasis be laid on achievements in war. At the same time these should not be ignored, nor should there be anything but the highest praise for those who sacrificed their lives for their country's freedom. Every opportunity that occurs through annual commemorations, such as Anzac Day, Armistice Day, Trafalgar Day, should be utilised to inculcate in the minds of the young love of country and a desire to promote peace among the nations. "

Willis T. G. Airey.

University College,
Auckland, New Zealand.

NORWAY.

Norwegians have always been seafarers with a wide knowledge of foreign countries. In recent centuries this has awakened in them an interest in history and politics, especially in regard to the countries of Western Europe, which are within easy reach of their coast. Norway has thus enjoyed all the advantages of international communication whilst at the same time generally succeeding in keeping clear of European conflicts. Consequently, Norwegians find no difficulty in accepting the ideas embodied in the League of Nations which are for them almost a matter of course. This causes a difficulty of a special kind, which affects the teaching of the League. For it is difficult to argue in favour of a proposition which appears self-evident, or to advocate a cause against which there is no opposition. More than a hundred years have passed since Norway was last engaged in war. In spite of its extensive international communications, Norway is remote from the wider scene of European politics and problems. For this reason the Norwegians — no doubt wrongly — feel less inclined to participate in the work of consolidating international peace than many other nations which are more exposed to the danger of war.

Economic conditions present a difficulty in this regard. Our country often goes unrepresented at international congresses, owing to the long and costly journey involved. The same difficulty affects educational work in the country itself. The great distances and the expense of travel interfere with arrangements for lecturing and other kind of propaganda in the remote parts of the country. The greatest interest in the League of Nations and international problems is to be found among the teachers, who are inclined to advanced views in politics and social questions.

Practically without exception, the recent editions of our history text-books contain references to the League of Nations, extending from a few lines to several pages. In the elementary school primers, the actual references are brief, but the subject is more fully explained by the teacher. In the secondary schools, the matter is dealt with in greater detail, and in the three highest forms the pupils write compositions on the League, partly on topics of their own choice, and partly on set subjects.

Lectures on the League and related problems are also given both by the pupils and by the teacher, always followed by a lively discussion. In the school debating societies the same subjects are dealt with in lectures and discussions. There is undoubtedly an increasing interest in the League of Nations among the advanced pupils and a corresponding aversion to war and armaments. " The romance of war " seems to have lost its appeal for the boys and girls of the present generation.

In the training schools for teachers for elementary schools, the League is dealt with in much the same way as in the highest forms of the secondary schools.

As regards higher education, terminal lectures are given on the League and on international problems in the Union societies, both at the University of Oslo and at the Technical High School at Trondhjem. The lectures are always followed by discussions.

Reference should also be made to the important work carried on by the Nobel Institute at Oslo. Lectures are regularly given here throughout the year by experts, both Norwegians and foreigners, the speakers including the winners of the Nobel Peace Prize. Last year a holiday course for teachers was arranged there by the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom. The course was inaugurated by the Prime Minister, and lectures were given by experts and university teachers.

Another activity worth mentioning is that of an important society named " Norden " ("The North"), which has sections in each of the northern countries. This society arranges large annual all-Scandinavian meetings in the different northern countries, the audience consisting of school-children, under-graduates, professional and business men, journalists and teachers. At these meetings all sorts of subjects are discussed. A committee of university professors and school-teachers has been examining the history text-books in order to purge them of passages calculated to give offence to one of the other nations. Exchanges of teachers are also arranged, both for lecturing and language teaching.

The gatherings of Scandinavian students should also be mentioned. They deal with a variety of subjects, literary and social as well as political. The meeting in Norway in 1928 included a lecture on the League of Nations, followed by a lively discussion, and at a meeting this year, again in Norway, there will be a lecture on intellectual co-operation. It is probable

that a lecture on some international question will henceforward be a regular feature of the programme.

The Norwegian University Group of the League of Nations, which was formed in 1925, began its activity with an appeal to the Board of Education to introduce League of Nations teaching in the schools, offering the services of one of its members for the writing of a booklet for teachers, suitable also for the pupils in the advanced classes. The Board of Education accepted the offer and the proposal has been realised.

The group has also circulated information regarding the League in numerous towns and districts in different parts of the country as far north as Trondhjem. Its members have lectured in People's Academies, clubs and various societies, appealing to all classes of the people. One of the members has also compiled a brief *Bibliography of the League of Nations*, especially for the use of teachers and individual readers. This publication won the support of the Foreign Office and, through the agency of the Board of Education, has been distributed free throughout the schools in the towns and to all the parish libraries in the country districts. The members of the group also write occasional articles on the League and its work in newspapers and periodicals. When the Norwegian delegates return home from the sittings of the Assembly, one of its members generally delivers a lecture on the results achieved.

Hans Mohr,

President of the Norwegian University Group for the League of Nations.

POLAND.

To speak to Polish young people and the Polish public in general on the activities of the League of Nations is a very simple and at the same time a very pleasant task, since the establishment of the League coincided with the rebirth of our country. The ideals of the League are familiar to all educated Poles, as post-war histories of modern Poland all include a general survey of the League, and four times a year at least questions of direct and vital interest to Poland are placed on the agenda of the Assembly or the Council.

But the problem with which we are now dealing — how to make the League known in and through the schools — involves far more difficulty than a mere occasional lecture on the subject, partly because our school curricula are already overburdened, as is the case, indeed, all over Europe, but chiefly because so few teachers are properly equipped to act as apostles of League doctrines ; and, again, because we possess no literature on the subject of international life, either in Polish or in foreign languages, suited to the intellectual standard of our elementary and secondary schools and training colleges.

Notwithstanding these obstacles something has been done to make the League's activities known in Poland and substantial results have been obtained, as may be judged from the following account.

Children in the elementary schools are taught about the League in connection with the last period of our national history — the restoration of Poland, President Wilson's policy (the thirteenth of his fourteen points), and the Treaty of Versailles. The teacher generally has one of the three unofficial editions of the Covenant published in Poland. The child's knowledge of the great international organisation is supplemented by the teacher of geography when explaining the frontiers of the national territory.

The method to be employed in such teaching and the exhibition of educational material have been keenly discussed in connection with the third biennial Congress of the World Federation of Education Associations, which is to be held at Geneva (July 25th to August 4th). There will be a big exhibit of Polish educational material. Various educational bodies have

united to form a committee for the organisation of the work demanded by the Congress and by the Exhibition Committee. Our Education and Propaganda Committee is taking an active part in this work. After consultation with the Schools Committee, it obtained the consent of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to the granting of financial aid, passports and free visas for those members of the Committee and teachers who are proceeding to Geneva this summer.

In the secondary schools, particularly since the issue in 1929 of the last circular of the Ministry of Education on Instruction in the activities of the League of Nations, steady progress has been made in this teaching, owing to the enthusiasm of the individual teachers.

The teaching is given — apart from the history and geography courses — in connection with the courses on "Elements of Law" or "Civics". The same method is employed in the training colleges.

But here, in the secondary schools and still more in the training colleges, we encounter our first serious difficulty in attempting to make known the League's work. There is a great dearth of teachers who are really conversant with international problems and capable of inculcating into their pupils the ideals for which the League stands. The Education and Propaganda Committee accordingly applied to the Ministry of Education to include instruction in the League's activities in the curriculum of the holiday courses for elementary school teachers. These courses are held every year in the principal Polish towns, such as Warsaw, Cracow, Lublin and Vilna, and we anticipate results most favourable to our cause. The Polish League of Nations Union also asked the Ministry of Education to offer two scholarships this year to cover the costs of the journey and a three-weeks' visit to Geneva. The Ministry has offered these scholarships on the following conditions : candidates must be students at a training college, must take a short written examination on the activities of the League, and must then pass an oral test on the subject. As the result of our efforts, this year for the first time two students from Polish training colleges will attend summer courses at Geneva. Lastly, the Union has undertaken to offer travelling facilities to all training-college teachers desirous of studying international co-operation at Geneva on the spot.

The Union's activities outside the school take the form

chiefly of organising League of Nations fêtes and " Days ", and of encouraging correspondence between school-children in different countries. For example, after receiving the message from the children of Wales, the Polish Education and Propaganda Committee translated the message into Polish and distributed it throughout the schools ; this year, as in past years, May 18th, the anniversary of the opening of the Hague Conference in1899,was kept as a "day of goodwill". Special lectures were given on international friendship, with songs and dramatic performances illustrating fraternal co-operation between the nations ; the message from the children of Wales was read and a reply was sent from the Polish children. The same day the Polish Radio organised a special programme for children, consisting of the message from the children of Wales, followed by speeches on the same theme. Lastly, the Committee sent the Polish text of the message to the editors of papers for children and young people and to the various teaching associations.

The international inter-school correspondence carried on by the junior sections of the Polish Red Cross, which was first organised some years ago, has made very considerable contribution to international friendship, and there is a steady increase in the number of letters, postcards and various small objects sent as souvenirs from distant countries. The weekly organ of the Polish Red Cross junior section publishes from time to time remarkable examples of what may be done by means of youthful enthusiasm when skilfully guided towards international and humanitarian ideals. These junior sections are represented on our Education and Propaganda Committee.

In the institutions for higher education, instruction in the League's activities forms an integral part of certain courses. In the Faculties of Law, for example, lecturers on international law always devote some attention to the League of Nations, as was the case, for example, during the academic year 1928-29 at Cracow, where twenty-four hours were devoted to this subject. Lecturers on modern history and social ethics also deal with the subject in their courses. Special courses are sometimes given, as, for example, at the University of Vilna, where I myself devoted a whole term last year to a course on the moral bases of post-war international life, in which the League occupied an important place. Several of our professors take as the subject of their practical lessons (seminars or debates) international questions and questions concerning

the League ; they organise libraries for the use of their seminars, consisting of League Secretariat publications and books on the subject in different languages. The most complete of these libraries is the one at Lemberg, the selection of the books being due to the efforts of Professor Ehrlich. It contains a complete set of the League publications, all the books and pamphlets on the subject published in Polish, and many books published in French, English and German.

This brings us to the second difficulty confronting us in our efforts to make known the League's activities — namely, the inadequacy of the Polish literature on the subject. This is a serious obstacle and one which will be only too obvious when it is remembered that most of our teachers and young people know only their mother-tongue, so that for them the publications of the League Secretariat and the literature on the subject published in other languages are quite inaccessible. Again, the few works which appeared in Polish six or seven years ago are now practically valueless, as the League's activities have developed chiefly during the last few years.

Accordingly, a drafting sub-committee of our Committee was formed in 1928 under the chairmanship of Professor Halecki, to prepare three volumes — a publication on the League of Nations for persons with the equivalent of a university education, a second volume for the use of schools, and a popular pamphlet on the League and its activities. These volumes are in the press, the cost of publication being defrayed by the Ministry of Education.

In conclusion, I may add that Polish experience in the matter of making known the League of Nations shows the importance of the training colleges, in which, in our opinion, scientific study of the League should be concentrated, and, secondly, of special libraries on the subject accessible, not only to university professors and students preparing for their doctor's degree, but also to lecturers, teachers and persons engaged in the organisation of League of Nations celebrations ; in fact, to anyone desirous of studying international questions, since the university libraries are at the same time public libraries.

Accordingly, we attach the greatest importance in Poland to the inclusion of all League publications in the library of every institution for higher education.

Abbé Alexandre WOYCICKI.

SWEDEN.

When the idea of the League of Nations was propagated by President Wilson and others, it was met in our country with the most sincere sympathy. Nothing else was to be expected, since Sweden had been at peace for more than a century and had always taken a prominent part in tasks of international co-operation. When, however, the League was actually established in 1919, we felt some disappointment, because the defeated States were not at once admitted. The Swedish Parliament, however, in 1920, decided by a considerable majority to join the League, and it can be said that Sweden has always fulfilled her League obligations with the utmost loyalty. Of course, there has been some opposition and criticism of League policy. The decision of the Council in 1921, in the dispute between Sweden and Finland, assigning the Aland Islands to Finland, did not contribute to the popularity of the League, and our subsequent temporary membership of the Council was not sufficient to efface the impression. Criticism has, however, abated since the entrance of the vanquished Powers into the League, and the granting of a permanent Council seat to Germany has accentuated its character as a universal organisation. There are, therefore, grounds for hoping that the instruction about the League of Nations given in the Swedish schools will meet with more interest and sympathy than hitherto.

All Swedish children and young persons, before completing their formal education, now receive instruction, suitable to their stage of intellectual development, in the aims and achievements of the League of Nations. The instruction is given to girls as well as boys. It begins in the highest form of the primary school ("fortsättningsskolan") and is then continued in the highest form of the "realskola" and the highest form of the gymnasium. The study of the League is correlated with the lessons in history and civics. In the higher forms of the gymnasium, the pupils may choose between different combinations of subjects, history and civics, however, being always obligatory.

Since the primary school instruction is given by class-teachers rather than specialists, all the teachers are called

upon to give instruction on the League. In the secondary schools, this falls to the teachers of history, civics and geography. While the older teachers, who had completed their training before the establishment of the League, are obliged to study it by reading up for themselves, the younger teachers have received a certain amount of instruction about it in their training college or university. Those of the teachers in history and civics at the secondary schools who have studied political science at the university, will have taken a special course on the League.

The Swedish Parliament in 1928 accorded a sum of 1,000 kronor in scholarships to university students intending to study the League at first hand. This year it has granted a sum of 25,000 kronor for peace purposes, and the number of Geneva scholarships will thus, no doubt, be considerably increased. The International New Education Fellowship is organising a conference at Helsingőr from August 8-21 of this year, and many members of its Swedish section will probably attend this meeting. One of the subjects on the agenda is "Education for International Understanding."

The Swedish League of Nations Union, the Peace Society of the Swedish Schools and the Swedish Section of the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom have organised numerous lectures on the League. In the course arranged this year by the last-named, Professor Östen Undén, the late Minister for Foreign Affairs, spoke on the political work of the League, Mlle. Henni Forchhammer on its social and humanitarian activities, and Professor Thunberg on the work of the Health Organisation.

The history text-books in use in the schools usually contain a brief account of the establishment and development of the League. It is, however, desirable that the League should be described not only as a result of the world war, but as the result of the peace movement, and as an agency of universal peace. The history of the peace movement ought to have its due place in the historical text books. On the other hand it must be said that there is nothing in these books that conflicts with the spirit of mutual conciliation and co-operation.

A more systematic description of the League is, of course, given in the courses in civics. The text-book usually employed in the secondary schools—Emil HILDEBRAND and V. VESSBERG: *Svensk stats- och samhällskunskap* — contains an account of the origins of the League, and deals with the Members and

their obligations and with the various organs, including the Permanent Court of International Justice and the International Labour Organisation. A more detailed description is, however, needed for the use of the teachers. This has been provided in books written by Mrs. Anna Bugge-Wicksell and Dr. Helge Granfelt. In the *Nordisk Familjebok* (the Swedish Encyclopædia), there are some articles about the League, the Court, the Labour Organisation, and a reader on the subject will soon be published. A translation of the Covenant and of the International Charter of the Labour Organisation has been edited by the Swedish League of Nations Union. The Ministry for Foreign Affairs has also issued a translation of the Covenant and publishes annually a "Blue Book" recording the activities of the Assembly and the Council. A periodical summary "*Meddelanden rörande Nationernas Förbund*", issued by the Swedish League of Nations Union, is regularly forwarded to the secondary schools, the leading educational reviews and the educational authorities.

The Swedish Students' Association for the League of Nations has arranged several lectures and discussions on League matters, utilising, for that purpose, the services of foreign visitors as well as of Swedish lecturers. Study circles are becoming more and more interested in special subjects connected with the League.

In school and university examinations, questions on the League are set, whenever practicable.

It should be said in conclusion that instruction about the League generally arouses most interest when the view is taken that the League is a great experiment. Some of the children are very anxious not only to hear and to read about the League but also to discuss and to debate the deeper problems involved.

FREDRIK JOHANNESSON.

SWITZERLAND.

The Swiss League of Nations Union realised at an early date the need of winning over the teaching profession to the cause of the League, in order that the rising generation might be brought up in the great new ideal of organising peace by international co-operation and the development of international law.

During the winter of 1928, the Executive of the Swiss League of Nations Union appointed an Education Committee of five to consider the best way of enlisting the support of school-teachers and of acting upon the recommendations of the experts.

This is no easy task, for special allowance has to be made for the peculiarities of the Swiss Constitution.

Whereas by a mere ministerial decree a centralised State can instruct thousands of teachers to include in their curriculum lessons on the League and its objects, and whereas a country like Prussia is able, within twelve months, to call for reports on the results obtained, Switzerland has to proceed in a much slower and more circumstantial manner.

This does not mean that the ultimate results will not be equally good, but it must be understood that strenuous efforts will be required and that some time must elapse before those results will become apparent. Of this the Education Committee is fully aware.

There are two reasons why a special method of procedure is necessary.

In the first place, the public educational system is organised on a cantonal basis, and the Federal Authorities are careful not to encroach upon cantonal sovereignty in school matters. They are therefore unable to convene a conference of teachers, as suggested in the experts' recommendations.

Every canton, or, in some cases, half-canton has its own laws and administrative authorities in educational matters. When putting forward requests or recommendations to the cantonal educational authorities, the Education Committee is thus faced with some twenty-two or twenty-five systems which may not be operated on the same lines and may be based upon a

different system of devolution. In view of these circumstancess, the Education Committee has endeavoured to set up, in the larger cantons, cantonal sub-committees appointed from among the teaching profession and in the smaller cantons, to select responsible persons with an intimate knowledge of local conditions, who would in due course undertake the liaison with the education authorities and would awaken and maintain interest in the League by articles in the educational papers, and by lectures and proposals at school staff meetings or at district teachers' conferences.

The Education Committee has already endeavoured, by interviewing education officers, school inspectors and head-masters, to draw their attention to the subject of instruction on the League of Nations, and, so far as the authorities have power to act, the results have been entirely satisfactory. Thus, the Zurich authorities subsidised lectures on the League of Nations at school staff meetings, and the Canton of Vaud lent its support to a history course for teachers organised by university professors, by allowing cantonal school-teachers their railway fare to Lausanne, and in other ways.

The second obstacle to rapid progress is the practically unrestricted freedom which Swiss teachers of all grades enjoy in their work—a freedom which they most jealously defend. We are most careful to respect it, even where our own desires and our consciousness of the urgent needs of the time incline us to chafe at the indirect means of action on which we have thus to fall back. But we know and appreciate its advantages : it affords the teachers freedom of thought and action, allows ample room for personal initiative, and enables them to adapt their creative gifts to existing needs and circumstances. It promotes instruction and education which is based on conviction and has life and character — an invaluable educational asset.

This is one advantage. Another is the fact that it makes the educational influence not only strong but lasting. For, once the majority of teachers are won over and have come to recognise the value of a particular subject-matter, they will hold to their course undisturbed by the cross-currents of political life.

The Education Committee is therefore particularly anxious to arouse the interest of teachers in League problems, to convince them, and to win their support, by courses, lectures and articles in the professional journals. A large number of the

hundred and sixty-one lectures organised last year were given to audiences of teachers, pupil-teachers and school-children.

Special endeavours are made, by personal contact, to bring home the importance of lessons on the League to training-college lecturers in French (or German or Italian, as the case may be), history, geography, Scripture and citizenship, as well as to inspectors and teachers who are on the curriculum and educational equipment committees and thus have an influence on the shaping of policy.

Some of the recent curricula — for instance, that of the Berne continuation schools — already contain a reference to League problems. Questions on the League are now frequently put to candidates for teachers' and " maturitäts " diplomas.

The committees of teachers' associations and the larger branches are now being asked to place League questions on their annual programmes of work. There are, moreover, League of Nations societies — that of Burgdorf for instance — which invite teachers to their proceedings. It is particularly important that such subjects should be included in the post-graduate courses which are organised by the teaching profession and are generally subsidised by the Government.

In this way the Education Committee of the Swiss League of Nations Union hopes to create and maintain widespread interest in League questions among the teaching profession.

It is satisfactory to find that in many places where no propaganda has yet been possible, in the remote mountain villages and in isolated schools, where teachers are doing pioneer educational work in the face of great difficulties, lessons on the League have been spontaneously introduced. Confirmation of this fact has been received from inspectors in all parts of the country.

The League may now be said to be gaining more and more supporters and sympathisers among the Swiss population, which was inclined at first to adopt a sceptical and non-committal attitude. Only in the matter of disarmament does this attitude still prevail, and the failure of the Preparatory Commission to achieve any substantial result in its recent sessions is not calculated to allay the apprehensions and anxiety which are still felt.

The work of Swiss teachers is greatly facilitated by the fact that the history and formation of the Confederation provides many illustrations, on a small scale, of the principal problems with which the League has to deal. Thus, in the first Covenant

of 1291, the Confederates pledged themselves to refrain from war with one another, to submit their disputes to arbitration and to regard any who refused to accept the award as their common foe. The idea of partnership and co-operation is firmly rooted in the minds of the people, and differences of race (Germanic and Latin), religion (Protestant and Catholic) and language (German, French, Italian and Romansch) are bridged over by absolute equality of political, legal and religious rights. These few parallels — and many more might be found — lend familiarity to League problems and strengthen the belief that, just as the smaller Swiss league contrived to settle its many inter-cantonal difficulties, so will the larger League of Nations succeed in overcoming the international difficulties which stand in the way of world peace.

Dr. IDA SOMAZZI,
President of the Education Committee of the Swiss League of Nations Society.

Note. A report on special activities in various cantons will be published in a future issue.

EDUCATION FOR THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Education for the League of Nations in the schools of the United States of America has to face two difficulties not encountered in most of the other countries in which it is being carried on — the fact that the United States is not a Member of the League, and the fact that there is no federal department of education in the United States, education being a function within the jurisdiction of each of the forty-eight States. It should be stated at the outset, however, that the first difficulty, the fact of non-membership, constitutes a problem rather than an obstacle ; that is to say, the work is rarely rendered impossible or even difficult, but simply requires a different approach. That problem of approach has been solved by the Educational Committee of the League of Nations Association of the United States by treating the League solely as history, by working to see that instruction in regard to it is included in the already existing curriculum in history, civics, etc., and in not raising at all the question of the United States' membership in the League. We urge teachers to give instruction in the aims, organisation and accomplishments of the League. Since the United States is not a Member of the League, it does not need to be mentioned in connection with such instruction. As a matter of fact, so seldom have objections been raised on the part of teachers to such instruction that rarely has argument been required. But where it has been it has almost invariably been quite easy to secure co-operation, once the fact was made perfectly clear that education in regard to the League is the aim, and not propaganda for the League. The entire practice of the Educational Committee and its staff has been scrupulous in this regard. In publications we have been careful not to over-estimate or make false claims. In the recent Third National Competitive Examination for high-school students, one question asked the students to point out that phase of League activities which in their judgment has been least effective and to give the reasons for their answer.

The other difficulty, that of decentralisation of education in the United States, simply makes the process somewhat more complicated, in that there are forty-eight systems of education

which are to be won over to inclusion of instruction in regard to the League rather than one. Further, even within the several States, educational practice is often still further decentralised, in that much discretion in regard to details of curricula, subject matter, etc., is left to the local educational authorities, viz., Boards of Education, superintendents and principals of schools. Owing to the foregoing facts, it is not possible simply to ask a minister of education to promulgate an order that League instruction shall be given in the schools. The individual authorities and even the individual teachers have to be persuaded of the advisability of such a course. Here, again, the difficulties should not be over-estimated. Rare, indeed, is the teacher who evidences any unwillingness to include instruction in regard to the League in the regular school courses in history, civics, etc. A few local battles have been waged on this issue, the teacher holding that " controversial questions have no place in the school ". It has sometimes happened, as would naturally be the case, that the raising of such an issue leads to a considerable amount of discussion in the community and brings the League to the attention of people who might otherwise never have heard of it.

So much for our peculiar difficulties. They really are not great. They account for the fact, however, that national conferences of educators in regard to League instruction are probably neither possible nor wise, nor can resolutions endorsing League teaching be secured at the present time from official teachers' organisations. The Educational Committee hopes, however, that the time is not too far distant when at least some bodies of teachers will be forward-looking enough to adopt declarations concerning the schools of the United States and the peace of the world, similar to those adopted in Great Britain. It is hoped that a first step will be taken in this direction during the coming year by certain particularly friendly State teachers' associations.

To pass from the discussion of difficulties to the more constructive subject of method, the first step taken by the Educational Committee and its staff, early in its history — now a matter of four years — consisted in the preparation of certain needed pieces of factual material, such as a manual for teachers and a monthly news-sheet distributed free of charge. Another early step was the organisation of series of special lectures for teachers of the social sciences, in which authorities on the several subjects described various phases of League activities and such

special topics as might be pertinent at the time. For example, to the history teachers of New York City, Mr. George W. Wickersham spoke on the World Court, and Professor James T. Shotwell on the Locarno Treaties. These lecture courses were held in the main in the larger cities, such as Boston, Philadelphia, Detroit and Chicago. In some cities, notably in Detroit, the educational authorities co-operated most cordially, giving the lectures a certain official standing ; in others, the teachers were individually invited and no particular effort was made to secure such co-operation. Certain conditions necessary to success developed — time and place must be convenient, subjects must be pertinent and, most important of all, lecturers must be national and even international authorities in their respective fields, since teachers are too busy people to be expected to listen to anything but the best.

The early *Manual for Teachers* grew into the now standard *Essential Facts in Regard to the League of Nations*, which has been revised from year to year and has gone through four editions. During the past year, *Essential Facts* has been supplemented by *A Short History of the League of Nations*, which gives considerably more detail than does the *Essential Facts*. Recently, the new *Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations*, published by the League Secretariat, has been made available and has been enthusiastically received by the Educational Committee. While there will probably always be a place for such a pamphlet as *Essential Facts* because it is both brief enough and cheap enough to be used by the individual student, the new *Aims and Organisation*, supplemented by the necessary chapter on accomplishments, will probably be made the standard handbook for the use of teachers.

Leaving out of account various minor activities, some of which have been entirely local in their interest, the remainder of this paper will be devoted to three major projects, carried forward by the Educational Committee and its staff during the past two years. They are as follows :

(1) National Competitive Examinations for students ;
(2) Model League Assemblies ; and
(3) Circulation of a questionnaire among colleges and normal schools.

Each year, for three years, the Educational Committee has conducted a National Competitive Examination on the League of Nations in high schools of the country. Participation in this

examination has steadily increased until, in the third examination held in March 1929, 1,146 schools registered, representing every State in the United States. The total number of such schools is about 7,000. *A Short History of the League of Nations*, referred to above, was the official text for the examination and 6,743 copies were distributed for examination purposes. While only two papers could be submitted to headquarters from each school, in many schools an entire class of twenty to forty students prepared for and took the examination, the best two papers being selected by the teacher in charge for forwarding to headquarters. Each year the first prize has been a trip to Europe, including a visit to Geneva and a first-hand study of the League. There have been also second and third prizes of $100 and $50 respectively and, in addition, a number of the local State and city branches of the League of Nations Association have offered money prizes for the best papers in their respective territory.

The method was simple. A letter announcing the terms of the contest and inviting registration was sent to every high school principal in the country, as early as definite plans could be made. Following registration, each individual school was mailed two free copies of the official text, plus as many additional paid copies as the school wished to order. On the given date, usually in March, the examination was held in the local schools, the papers to be forwarded within a given period to headquarters, where they passed through a preliminary reading and finally went — that is, the best of them — to a Committee on Award, whose task it was to select the final winners. One interesting fact is that each succeeding year not only has the number of registered schools increased, but the quality of the papers submitted has improved. This would seem to point, of course, to greater interest on the part of both teachers and students, and to more adequate time spent in preparation. One teacher writes from Tennessee that she plans to give a special course on the League next year preparatory to the examination, rather than to include the preparation in the regular history course, and she is making arrangements for credit to be given toward college entrance for the course. Another teacher writes from Topeka, Kansas, that next year she plans to give a place in the regular high school course in history "to at least a month's study of the League and related institutions".

In addition to the students themselves, who are direct participants in these examinations, there is the indefinitely

large number of teachers, librarians, parents and friends who, in a varying degree, participate in the preparations for the examination and in the interest attached to it. We estimate that from 60,000 to 75,000 people were more or less directly concerned in the third competitive examination held this spring.

During this past season, the Educational Committee took the new step of conducting a similar examination in the normal school and teachers' colleges of the country. Methods followed were in the main similar to those described above for the high-school examinations. A much smaller number of schools and of students was involved, there being about 300 teacher-training institutions in the country. The examination set was naturally more difficult, consisting less of questions of fact and rather more of questions involving judgment, or even actual method of teaching. One of the questions to which twenty credits was assigned was as follows :

> " (*a*) Outline quite in detail the methods you would use throughout one term in a given grade of elementary school, or a given year of high school, to train your pupils ' to regard international co-operation as the normal method of conducting world affairs'. State the grade or year which you have in mind.
>
> " (*b*) Give your reasons for considering such training important. "

A Committee on Award consisting of well-known educators passed upon the final papers.

It is already definite that the normal school contest will be held again next year, but it is now planned to conduct it on a somewhat different basis. Probably, instead of the examination form used this year, participating students will be asked to write a thesis on some one of several announced subjects, making such use as they wish of reference material. Indications are now that still a third type of examination will be included in next year's programme, one for college and university students.

The purpose of all these examinations is, of course, frankly, to encourage the study of the League on the part of our students, and it would appear that the purpose is being accomplished.

The Model Assembly project is now three years old. The extent to which it has developed, with very little effort on the part of the Educational Committee and its staff, gives indication of the student interest in the idea. This past season, 138 colleges and universities participated in six intercollegiate Model

Assemblies held at the University of Chicago, Ohio Wesleyan University, University of Michigan, Mount Holyoke College, University of Southern California and Vassar College. The number of institutions participating in each individual Assembly ranged from fourteen to thirty-six. The number of institutions participating in these intercollegiate Assemblies last year totalled seventy-three. These figures refer to intercollegiate Assemblies alone. In addition, there have been very successful Assemblies held in individual colleges, in normal schools and in high schools. A number of the high school Assemblies have been inter-scholastic, as, for example, in the city of Detroit, where twelve high schools participated last October in an inter-high-school Assembly which was a feature of the programme of the State Teachers' Association. This particular Assembly, it is interesting to note, had enjoyed the full co-operation of the high-school authorities and members of the Board of Education occupied seats on the platform. The Assembly idea has spread so widely that the exact figures for the current year are not known, but it is estimated that at least two hundred high schools, normal schools, colleges and universities have participated in Model Assemblies during the season just past.

Before going into details with regard to the methods used, we should perhaps consider just what is the purpose of the Model League Assembly. It is believed that these Assemblies fulfil the threefold purpose of dramatising the League itself, of illustrating the conference method of handling international problems, and of interesting and informing students in international affairs generally. Sir Herbert Ames, former financial director of the League of Nations, who has been the distinguished speaker at a number of intercollegiate Assemblies, said recently : "The student 'delegate' almost unconsciously acquires an attitude of sympathetic appreciation towards the nation or group whose viewpoint he represents. He sees their problems through their own eyes. He assumes that spirit of toleration which alone makes possible co-operation among different races. He learns what is meant when they speak at Geneva of the 'will to agree'." Professor Phillips Bradley, of the Political Science Department of Amherst College, says : "The Assemblies, I think, offer one of the most unique possibilities of collegiate and intercollegiate activity which have been uncovered in a good while. The organisation is simple, the material vivid, the possibilities of useful co-operation with actual departmental work in history, economics and government excellent ; the

discussions are more likely than in almost any other field to be interesting to the general public, an incentive to real preparation by the students." Additional testimony is given by Professor Lena van Bibber, of the History Department of the Maryland State Normal School : " The educational and social value of the Model Assembly at Maryland State Normal School lay in the fact that an impression of reality was created among our young people. Students taking part were tremendously in earnest. In the Maryland State Normal School the League is no longer a mere abstraction ; it is a living thing ". Many similar statements by other distinguished educators could be quoted.

Turning to the subject of method, the outline of the Model Assembly project in its essentials is simple. Students take the parts of Assembly delegates from the various Member States, and, in a framework of League procedure and phraseology, make and discuss reports and present resolutions just as is done at Geneva. As a rule, the agenda for a given Assembly is based on that of the most recent League Assembly, and topics chosen for discussion are usually those League problems which are most pressing at the given time ; for example, disarmament and its attendant problems have been given a prominent place on the agenda of most Model League Assemblies during the past season. So far as possible, the Geneva setting is reproduced, delegates seating themselves in groups under placards indicating the Member States, while the presiding officer, the interpreters and the needed experts take their place upon the platform. Delegates mount the tribunal in addressing the Assembly. Throughout the Assembly, League phraseology is used. So far as possible, students of foreign birth are chosen to represent their native countries and frequently address the Assembly in their native language, followed of course by the necessary rendering in English. Probably the most striking impression carried away from such an Assembly, even by a hardened attendant, is the seriousness, the dignity and the absorption of the student delegates. Members of delegations confer excitedly with one another when a vote is impending. Pages dart about the Assembly room, carrying important messages from group to group. Experts advise upon knotty points of procedure, and almost invariably the delegates have so become imbued with the spirit of the country which they represent that, for the time being, they are that country. One remembers the New York high school boy who represented the British Empire and who,

in his earnestness, obviously for the moment identified himself with that Empire. At the intercollegiate Assembly held at the University of Michigan this spring, the representative of Japan made an eloquent statement of Japanese foreign policy, a denial of imperialistic charges against Japan, voiced a fervent support of the League of Nations and the desire of the Japanese Government to co-operate with the League's programme. At the same Assembly, another student, representing Germany, chided some of the other Powers for regarding mandates as an outlet purely for over-population, for industrial expansion and for cheap labour, and declared that, when a mandate should be entrusted to Germany, it would be governed in accordance with League principles.

In detail, the procedure followed, particularly in regard to choice of subject material and amount and character of previous preparation, differs mainly with the type and maturity of the participating students. In high schools, the best plan has proved to be to confine the programme mainly to reproduction of what has actually transpired in Geneva ; while, in the college and university Assemblies, much more original work is done by the student. In the simplest type of Assembly, that usually presented in high schools, the agenda is as a rule planned and the parts assigned by the teachers in charge. The students' preparation is confined to a reading of the official record of speeches actually presented in Geneva, and these speeches are cut and condensed to such a form that they can be given in the Model Assembly. Little if any original work is done. Even so, it is astonishing to note the dramatic effect of this simple type of Assembly, and the interest of the participating students. The youthful Briands and Stresemanns speak with a fervour and a dignity which would not discredit the distinguished gentlemen whom they represent and students as well as audience carry away a vivid picture of what actually goes on in Geneva. It is astonishing to learn that a worth-while programme can be presented in forty minutes.

The intercollegiate Assemblies are, of course, much more elaborate both in the preliminary preparation required and in the actual programme. Their sessions usually continue through two days, opening, for example, on a Friday evening, continuing with a Saturday morning and afternoon session and closing with a dinner and speeches by distinguished visitors on Saturday evening. There is no attempt to reproduce actual Geneva speeches. The agenda is decided upon some weeks or even

months in advance by a steering committee composed of students either from the host college alone or from the several participating colleges, assisted by such faculty advisers as may be necessary. Invitations are extended to the participating colleges, which sometimes include only the colleges within a given State, or, again, cover a region, as, for example, New England, consisting of several States. With the agenda and the participating colleges decided upon, the next step is to allot the countries which each college is to represent and the particular subjects on the agenda in the discussion of which it is to share. These two matters are left, as largely as possible, to individual choice. Naturally, a considerable amount of correspondence is involved and it is important that there should be a competent Secretary-General, who conducts this preliminary business in an orderly and efficient fashion. Once subjects are assigned, the next step is the making up of necessary bibliographies and lists of documentary reference material, and the circulation of such material. It is in the selection of such material, as well as in the preparation of an agenda, that the staff of the Educational Committee of the League of Nations Association has done the greater part of its co-operation with the Model Assemblies. It should be noted here, however, that practically all the Assemblies held in the United States have based their procedure upon the "Outline for Model Assemblies" prepared by the educational staff. When subjects are assigned and reference material made available, the next step, of course, is the actual preparation done by the students themselves and, while the extent and quality of that preparation naturally varies, on the whole it is highly creditable. Students have not only equipped themselves with the facts of the subject at hand, but have, so far as possible, tried to discover what would be the probable attitude of their adopted countries on these particular subjects, so that they may, in real sense, represent that country at the Model Assembly. In addition to the foregoing intellectual preparation, there are many details connected with the preparations for the Assembly which must, in the main, be handled by the host college, such as arrangement for the entertainment of delegates, preparation of the Assembly Hall, attention to publicity both in the college papers and in the general Press, and all the other obvious things which must be done to ensure the comfort of the hundred or more visiting delegates. One detail has been found to be important, namely, the securing of one or more distinguished speakers who, by addresses given at the beginning or the close of the Assembly

or both, will help to transport the delegates mentally to Geneva and will impress them with the international and important character of the problems which they are to consider.

One new feature was introduced in the New England intercollegiate Assembly, this year held at Mount Holyoke, in that the programme consisted of three distinct parts — first, a session of the Council ; second, a session of the Assembly proper ; and, third, a general Conference of the International Labour Organisation. A plan now under consideration for one of next year's intercollegiate Assemblies is to break up the Assembly in its first session into the six standing Committees, the idea being that such a plan would give more opportunity for actual participation by each delegate, that the discussion would be more intensive on each individual problem, and that this preliminary intensive discussion in the six Committees would improve the quality of the discussion in the open Assembly. An outstanding fact at the present time is that every one of the six intercollegiate Assemblies this year has effected, or is now in the process of effecting, a permanent organisation to carry over the plans for next year. In some cases this interim committee is constituted as the League Council and will perhaps itself hold two or three sessions before next year's Assembly. The movement toward this permanent organisation is almost entirely voluntary on the part of the students themselves.

There remains one new feature of the past year's educational work, namely, questionnaires circulated among (*a*) colleges and universities, and (*b*) normal schools, with the general idea of ascertaining to what extent and by what methods instruction on the League is being given in our institutions of higher learning and what is the present situation as regards student and faculty interest in the matter. Replies to these questionnaires were received from some hundred and fifty institutions, and a considerable mass of valuable information has been collected, upon which the Educational Committee will no doubt, to a large extent, base its programme for next year. It is impossible, of course, in this article to quote the facts learned in any detail. A few outstanding facts may be mentioned. In reply to the college questionnaire, three out of five institutions report that student interest in the League is either already strong or increasing ; 77 per cent would welcome further material on the League. Three-fifths of the institutions reporting cite student organisations which are interested in international relations in general and the League in particular. One-fifth of those which

replied subscribe to the Global Service. Nine-tenths report that, at some point in their courses, whether in history, political science, international relations, international law, economics, etc., attention is given to the League of Nations. One reply, from a New York State college, may be taken as fairly typical : " We aim to familiarise students with the strength and weakness of the League, so that they may expect neither too much of it nor too early results ". Again, an Ohio college replies : " We treat the League not in a propaganda sense, but scientifically as a going concern in world relations and international affairs — its strong points and its failures ".

Throughout its work, the Educational Committee of the League of Nations Association makes every effort to follow as far as possible the recommendations of the Sub-Committee of Experts working under the direction of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. It is more and more being brought to the attention of teachers all over the country that educational work of this character is a part of a world movement, and the Committee believes that among them there is not one who would fail to approve the purpose of training " the younger generation to regard international co-operation as the normal method of conducting world affairs ".

Mrs. Harrison THOMAS,
Secretary, Educational Committee,
League of Nations Association,
6, *East* 39*th Street, New York City*

PART III.

Official Section.

CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN THE SECRETARY-GENERAL OF THE LEAGUE AND THE STATES MEMBERS.

CORRESPONDENCE REGARDING THE INSTRUCTION OF YOUTH IN THE AIMS OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS.

In the preceding pages reference has often been made to the recommendations of the Sub-Committee of Experts for the Instruction of Youth in the Aims of the League of Nations. These recommendations, together with the report of the Sub-Committee drawn up by M. Jules Destrée, were issued in 1927 as a League document (C.I.C.I.190, or A.26.1927). They may be said to contain a comprehensive programme of suggestions, among which the Governments and individual educators should be able to choose such methods as may suit their particular needs.

A few years before the creation of the Sub-Committee of Experts, the League Assembly had adopted resolutions emphasising the desirability of making known the ideas and work of the League to the youth of the world. These resolutions were circulated annually by the Secretary-General to the States Members of the League and have resulted in a series of interesting reports in which the Governments describe the action taken in their respective countries. All these reports have been duly published in the League's *Official Journal* and as separate documents bearing the numbers A.10.1925, A.10(*a*).1925, A.15.1926, C.I.C.I.190.1927, and A.30.1928.

We publish below a report of this type presented by the Austrian Government. It is in a sense an addition to the document A.30.1928, as it is given in reply to the same circular letter as contained in that document.

On the other hand, it has seemed interesting to reproduce here a recent letter from the Secretary-General to the States Members. This circular was sent out to accompany the handbook " The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations " which has been prepared by the Secretariat specifically for the use of teachers. It shows, better than any description, the intentions of the Committee of Experts and the League Secretariat in preparing this booklet. As regards the numerous replies already received from the various Governments, it seems premature to reproduce them here. Several of them are only provisional, and it would obviously be too soon to expect important results of action taken by Governments.

REPORT FROM THE AUSTRIAN GOVERNMENT

(May 4th, 1929).

With reference to your Circular Letter No. 146 of October 28th, 1927, inviting the Federal Government to send you information regarding the measures taken to give effect to the recommendations made by the Sub-Committee of Experts for the Instruction of Children and Youth in the Existence and Aims of the League of Nations, the Foreign Affairs Department of the Federal Chancellery has the honour to supply the following information :

Some time before these recommendations were made, measures were taken in Austria to bring the existence of the League of Nations to the knowledge of young people and to develop the spirit of international co-operation.

With this object, articles on the history and work of the League were inserted in school-books, and passages glorifying war were deleted.

Since 1922, special courses on the constitution and work of the League of Nations have been regularly held at the University of Vienna throughout the academic year, and have aroused the greatest interest amongst the students. There are also in Austria several young people's associations which have taken upon themselves the work of developing and spreading the idea of the League of Nations.

In accordance with one of the League's recommendations — and apart from other possibilities — a day, May 18th, which was already known as Peace Day, has been fixed for the instruction of school-children in a suitable manner in the objects, the work, and the importance of the League of Nations, and on that day school celebrations may be organised.

Further, the articles relating to the League which are sent by the Information Section of the Secretariat are transmitted for publication to the Austrian pedagogical reviews and they are sometimes also broadcast.

Thanks to the kind assistance of Dr. F. Matsch, Secretary for League of Nations affairs in the Foreign Affairs Department of the Federal Chancellery, a library comprising all the League's own publications and a considerable number of publications regarding the League has been installed in the State Archives building at Vienna, and is accessible to the general public.

A competition is organised each year amongst secondary-school pupils and pupil-teachers for the best work upon a question concerning the League of Nations. Winners of first prizes receive from the Federal Government a grant for an educational visit to Geneva at the beginning of September. They are thus enabled to see the League of Nations in being and in full activity.

The competent Austrian authorities have also seriously considered the recommendation regarding the publication of a reference book for teachers dealing with the organisation and work of the League of Nations, but no final decision has yet been reached. This question will, however, be settled shortly, as the reference book suggested in the recommendations, *The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations*, issued by the League Secretariat — a very valuable publication — was forwarded to the Federal Government in March last.

In Austria, teachers and pupils undertaking educational journeys benefit by reduced charges of all kinds — for example, reduced railway fares and fees for visas, etc.

It may be added that there is in Austria an international school of political and economic science, the Consular Academy, which has taken the place of the Oriental Academy, founded in 1754. Its aim is to give its students, who are recruited from all countries, thorough instruction in the realms of international politics and economics, transit and the Press. As most of the students live and take their meals in the Academy building, they are in constant relationship with their comrades and have opportunities for knowing, appreciating and respecting the qualities and characteristics of the different nations.

(Signed) PETER,
Secretary-General.

CIRCULAR LETTER OF THE SECRETARY-GENERAL TO THE STATES MEMBERS

(March 12th, 1929).

I have the honour to forward you a publication entitled " The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations " issued by the Secretariat of the League for the use of teachers.

This book has been written in conformity with a decision of the Assembly, which at its eighth ordinary session approved of a recommendation to this effect voted by a Sub-Committee of Experts appointed in 1926 by the League Council to study the question : How to introduce League knowledge into the schools.

The Assembly asked that :

> " A special Reference Book, giving an account of the work of the League and of the International Labour Organisation for the use of teachers, should be prepared, which will probably assume a different form in various countries. The Secretary-General should be asked to undertake, in co-operation with experts of his own choice, the preparation of that part of the Reference Book which deals with the organisation and aims of the League of Nations. "

The book now published is the fulfilment of the task entrusted to the Secretariat. It aims solely at presenting a nucleus of basic facts intended for the use of teachers; no discussion of teaching methods has been included, nor is the book a history of League activity. The experts recognised that, in regard to these matters, it was impossible to produce a single text which would be equally satisfactory for all the Members of the League, and that, as pointed out in the Introduction to the book, the teacher will wish to study and teach in greater detail those questions which particularly affect his own people or to whose solution his own countrymen have specially contributed. They consider, however, that certain central facts on the organisation and aims of the League should be drawn from the same central source of information. They therefore suggested the preparation of this book, to be carefully studied by the competent educational authorities in all countries Members of the League, translated where necessary, and, if thought desirable, embodied in a reference book containing a fuller explanation of the League's activity and of its relations to the respective countries.

I should be much obliged if I could be informed of any measures which may be taken by your Government to introduce this book into the schools in one or other of the languages of the original publication, or in a translated edition.

I should also be glad to be informed of any steps which may be taken for the preparation in your country of a reference book on the League containing, as suggested by the Assembly, the text of the book now issued on the aims and organisation of the League.

In view of the fact that the Assembly of 1927 approved the preparation of this book, I am sending copies to such educational and other organisations as may desire them.

RESOLUTIONS CONCERNING THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS EDUCATIONAL SURVEY.

" The Committee also deems it advisable to publish twice yearly, in a review, the whole of the information received on the instruction of youth in the aims of the League of Nations, including the replies from Governments and regular reports by expert correspondents, written in an interesting style, concerning the carrying out of the recommendations. The planning and control of this publication would be entrusted to a Committee of Directors, consisting of three persons representing the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, the League Secretariat and the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation.

" The Committee requests the Assembly, should it approve the publication of this review, to be good enough to appropriate in the Intellectual Co-operation budget the sum necessary for the purpose. " (Resolution of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.)

The question was subsequently dealt with in the report presented to the League Assembly by Professor G. Gallavresi on the work of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. The relevant paragraph reads as follows :

" It has also been suggested that a Survey should be published on the responsibility and under the supervision of the Secretary-General of the League. This Survey would be prepared by an Advisory Committee consisting of one representative each of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, the Secretary of the League of Nations and the Paris Institute. The Survey, which would be intended primarily for teachers, would be prepared in the same spirit as that which has governed the work of the Sub-Committee of Experts. "

The Assembly, in adopting the report, devoted the following lines to this item :

" The Assembly notes the action taken by several States in pursuance of the recommendations of the Sub-Committee of Experts for the Instruction of Young People in the Aims of the League, the beginning of the work of the Educational Information Centre in Geneva and Paris, and the contemplated publication of a Survey devoted to these questions. " (September 24th, 1928.)

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Educational Survey

Volume I, No. 2. January 1930

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EDITORIAL.

One of the most striking features of the tenth Assembly of the League of Nations was the interest shown in the problem of the education of the younger generation along the lines of international co-operation. Indeed, the greatest enthusiasm displayed in the course of the entire proceedings was that which greeted the Foreign Minister of France when, in the most eloquent passage of his speech in the opening debate, he emphasised the overwhelming importance of the efforts of the League in this cause, and denounced the sowing of poison in the minds of the young. Equally impressive was the reference to the subject by the Foreign Minister of Germany in the last speech which he was fated to deliver before the Assembly, laying stress as it did on the need for a transformation in that idea of heroism which has traditionally been associated in literature and in the minds of the growing generations with the conception of war. The reader will find the full text of the relevant passages of these and other speeches delivered on the subject during the Assembly at the close of this issue. They testify to the opinion of the fifty-three delegations present that the problem is one which the League should press forward by every means at its disposal ; as a result, credits were voted providing for the translation of the reference book for teachers and enabling the *Educational Survey* itself to appear hence-forward regularly twice a year. The present number is therefore published in January, and it is proposed to have regular issues in January and July.

The Assembly also provided for the summoning of the Sub-Committee of Experts on the teaching of the League, which has not met since it drew up its original report in 1927. In surveying the developments of the last three years, the Sub-Committee will be in a position to examine any new material available.

* * *

In the present issue, the policy of attempting to draw on the first-hand experience of those in actual contact with education problems has been adhered to. Thus, three articles are devoted to the place to be given in the curriculum to the teaching of the League and international co-operation and to methods of present-ing the subject. Ucalegon, who writes with the authority and

experience of one who is familiar from daily experience with the working of a national system of education, draws attention to the danger that the teaching of the League and of what it stands for may be relegated to the background. He closes on a note of challenge which will, it is hoped, evoke a response of different kinds from readers equally familiar with the practical issues involved in their respective countries. The two following articles on the subject throw a vivid light on the different forms that the problem assumes, whatever the age of the pupils, in the class-room, according to the temperament and traditions of particular nations. Indeed, the British contribution would suggest that the methods employed must vary, not simply according to the nation, but according to the particular type of school and the influences to which the pupils are subjected in their own homes and social surroundings. The contrast between the British and French treatment of the same subject, by teachers animated by a common ideal, is a striking confirmation of the view which has always been general among educators that the path of international co-operation is not the path of uniformity.

The articles on school journeys and camps for older boys continue the accounts of out-of-school activities of an international character, applied by those who have had special experience in organising them. Dr. Huntington's article, on the other hand, draws attention to an experiment of a very special kind which has been carried on effectively for close on three generations in the Near East, adapting itself progressively to the growth of the national consciousness and of national systems of education. The article on university education in international affairs is a continuation of the account already given of the movement for the international co-ordination of institutions engaged in the scientific study of politics. It is intended to follow this up, in later issues, by a detailed account of the work of individual institutions in this field, particularly where they involve features of a novel and interesting kind.

* * *

A considerable proportion of the issue is once more devoted to reports from individual countries. Regret must, however, again be expressed as to the obstacles which have been encountered in securing first-hand accounts, especially from non-European countries. If the *Survey* is to be adequate to its purpose,

means must be found for overcoming this difficulty. It is certain that there is much valuable work done in the cause of international co-operation of which no record penetrates beyond the frontiers of the country, or sometimes even of the district and school, in which it is carried on. Some more regular arrangements are needed for the promotion and maintenance of contacts between the workers in this field in different countries.

In the meantime, the teaching profession, through its international associations in the primary and secondary field and its participation in congresses of a more general character, is becoming more and more interested in this most important aspect of its work. It must be an encouragement to those in the associations concerned, who have devoted so much effort and enthusiasm to this cause, to see how public opinion, as expressed by the Governments represented at the Assembly, is more and more manifesting its sympathy with their ideas.

It will be remembered that the Sub-Committee of Experts recommended the summoning of national conferences to discuss how best its suggestions could be put into effect in individual countries. The initiative was taken in this matter by Great Britain, where, as related on page 84, a Conference was held in June 1927 in London. A similar Conference, on a more extended scale, was held in Berlin on November 11th to 13th last. In view of the provisions of the German Constitution, the invitations were issued jointly by the Foreign Office, the Ministry of the Interior and the Prussian Ministry of Science, Art and Education. The Conference was organised by Dr. Wilhelm Schellberg, the German member of the Sub-Committee of Experts, whose report in the last *Survey* on the steps taken in Prussia to carry out the Committee's recommendations will be remembered. The special object of the Conference, which was attended by educationists from all parts of Germany, was to discuss the practical problems arising out of the execution of the recommendations, thus going beyond the mere formal programme of the British Conference. It is impossible, in a brief note, to give even a summary of the discussions carried on for three days, but it is intended to return to the subject in the next issue.

It should also be mentioned that a conference was convened in May last by the Minister of Education in Western Australia. In this case, those invited included representatives of educational institutions and of the local League of Nations Union. It resulted in the appointment of a Sub-Committee to suggest how

the teaching of the League could best be promoted in primary and secondary schools. The Sub-Committee reported to the Minister in July, recommending that a definite instruction regarding the League should be given to children in the highest class in the primary schools and declaring that " no satisfactory course in history can be given in secondary schools that does not include teaching on the subject of the League of Nations ", and recommending a corresponding change in the syllabus.

PART I.

INSURANCE AGAINST THE YEAR "X"

" Nam tua res agitur, paries
cum proximus ardet ".

To the schoolmaster and to the administrator of education the curriculum is a very sacred thing. It represents a stage in the long tradition of educational thought ; to its creator it is a work of art, the masterpiece of the craft and mystery of teaching. Its beauty lies in its balance of subjects and its economy of that precious material, time. For time in school is always too short to teach all one wishes to teach.

In all the shaping and planning of the curriculum, the claims of one subject or group of subjects are always clashing against another subject or another group. Each expert, and each enthusiast, is clamouring for more time for what each believes essential for true education. Often over all lies the shadow of the examination, the outward and visible sign that, on the narrowly intellectual side, the schoolmaster has done his work. On the moral and physical sides, the proofs are more difficult to appraise and may not appear for years or even for generations.

Constant too are the claims of new subjects or of new aspects of subjects. Is the schoolmaster to throw over his old friends, the branches of knowledge that have stood him in such good stead in the past ? Is he to fly in the face of tradition, or to overburden his beloved curriculum with more subjects than the pupil can hope to assimilate ? Is he to substitute scrappiness for thoroughness in the hope of satisfying the claims both of the old subject and the new ? Or shall he pay lip-service to the new ? Or shall he boldly say : "The old is better" ?

Any one acquainted with educational history, particularly that of the last twenty years, will know how fierce is the battle of the subjects, and with what devotion men and women will fight both for subjects and for methods. They realise more or less clearly that the future of their nation depends on the education the young receive and will not abandon their convictions without a struggle. The prize they fight for is time ; periods of the school week.

And in this battle, none the less real because it is fought with official circulars and speeches, with resolutions and

memoranda, with appeals to psychology and to common sense, what chance has League instruction ?

Is it to be part of geography ? Then something must be thrown overboard to make room for it. Is it history? Then it is too modern to be worthy of the name. Is it to be *morale sociale* ? Then it must take its place after national claims have been met. All the old subjects combine against it. Let it come in at the end of the geography or the history or the civics course. One period, two periods can be allotted at the end of the year. In the last precious years no time can be spared. Let the children hear a lecture by a well meaning visitor, let them listen to a talk on the wireless, let them see a film, let them form a society that will meet out of school hours. The balance of the curriculum must not be upset, other subjects must not be neglected. Due proportion must be observed. Time cannot be spared. Of course children must know of the existence of the League — just as they know of the existence of the North Pole. But it need not take long.

Such are the arguments of many a schoolmaster, of many an administrator. Provide just enough League instruction for the country's representative at the Assembly to be able to say : " League instruction is given in our schools and colleges ". Honour will be satisfied. The children will have heard as much of the League of Nations as the claims of other subjects will admit. The teacher and the administrator have done their duty up to their lights. They are not concerned with insurance against the year X.

The year X is the year when the risk of war may once again become real. At present we remember the great war, we have no money, no desire for war, perhaps no power to make war. We flatter ourselves that we are becoming wiser, less brutal, less liable to be carried away by herd emotion ; we glow with the thought that civilisation is progressing. It may be true — heaven grant that it may be true! — but we are not at the moment being tempted, and it is easy to be virtuous when there is no temptation. We are setting up machinery, and admirable machinery, to dispel national enmities before they become serious, to settle disputes as they arise, to enable nations to work together in the cause of peace, to organise peace. But what will happen in the year X ?

Ten or fifteen years hence, the boys and girls now in our schools will be men and women. They may be better educated than we were in 1914, they may be more accustomed than we were

in 1914 to the idea of international co-operation and to the peaceful settlement of international disputes. They may have seen the League of Nations grow in authority and influence, while armaments diminish. But consider the temptations which will assail them, the strain to which their balanced judgment will be subjected. The old soldier, the financier, the priest, the demagogue, the politician may all be roused to a desire for war. At their command are all the apparatus for rousing popular excitement and drowning reason. The sermon, the film, the wireless, the newspaper, may all be mobilised. Of course each nation will be certain that it is in the right. Can we, remembering 1914, trust the scientist or the historian, the economist or the statesman to lead the people aright ? How easy will it be to rouse patriotism, anger and fear, the emotions that sweep away all power of reasoning. The year X will be the testing time not only of our peace machinery but of the mentality of the peoples.

How, then, can we insure against the year X ? Armaments are, of course, worse than useless. We need to insure against a state of mind.

Is it really worth while to take out such an insurance policy ? War may never threaten again. Why insure against it, it may be asked. The question is best answered with another question : Why insure against fire ? The house may never be burnt down. Nevertheless, insurance against fire has become a recognised practice which it is considered an imprudence not to follow.

But granted that we *ought* to insure against the year X, how are we to set about it ? How can we take out an insurance policy against a national state of mind ? The answer can only be, by education.

Of course, if one does not believe that the training of youth can influence the state of mind of the adult, *cadit quæstio.*

Will League instruction of a purely emotional character produce the needful permanent effect ? We know perfectly well it will not. Indeed it may be a positive danger, since unballasted sentiment can easily be driven, by those who know how to play upon it, from one extreme to another. Are we not familiar with the apostle of international peace who is ready to resort to violence in domestic controversies, and is not the literature of emotional pacifism strewn with military metaphors ?

Will a general education produce so stable and well-balanced a mind that it will rise superior to the strain of the year X ?

Once and for all, 1914 should have destroyed that illusion. What hope is there that any improvements in the teaching of languages and literature, science and mathematics, will so strengthen the mental and moral fibre of the nations that the dangers of the year X may be disregarded? What use, at such a crisis, will be fragments of information about the League, as vague, as scrappy and as chilly as those about the North Pole ?

Our only real insurance against the year X is League instruction on a broad intellectual basis. Our children must realise the League as a dynamic force on the modern world, as a natural and, indeed, a necessary offshoot of the past. We must re-orient our teaching of the world as it is and of the world as it used to be. It does not suffice that the next generation should have learned that war was horrible and must not recur. They must also have learned by what practical political methods it can be prevented, and learned it so thoroughly that they realise it and retain the general conception as a permanent mental possession. Then, as they grow up, they will read and listen intelligently about international affairs, will take an intelligent interest in them and use an intelligent judgment as they watch their development.

Nobody expects, or indeed desires, to turn out from the primary or the secondary school phalanxes of political philosophers on the international plane. But, during the formal education of childhood and adolescence, the foundations must be laid on which the adult can build a sane national and international outlook. The general standard of public opinion must be raised, slowly perhaps and imperceptibly, but steadily and surely. Thus, and thus alone, can the educationist respond to the appeal of M. Briand at the 1929 Assembly to educate the younger generation in the spirit of peace. This is the true insurance against the year X, but, as for all forms of insurance, the premiums must be paid, premiums payable not directly in money but in periods of school time. Will the Committee of Experts, which is due to meet during the next few months, indicate their idea of a reasonable premium ?

UCALEGON.

HOW FRENCH SCHOOLCHILDREN ARE TAUGHT ABOUT THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS AND PEACE.

Schools have their allotted part to play in paving the way for universal peace. As M. Briand has said : " When children are taught to love peace, to respect other nations and to seek for what men have in common rather than their points of difference, then, and then alone, will peace reign on earth ".

In France, during the last few years, great progress has been made in this direction. Instruction on the League is included in the official curricula for secondary education (*lycées* and *collèges*) and higher-grade primary education (additional courses, higher-grade schools and training colleges). Proficiency is tested by means of an oral examination at the end of the training course. Furthermore, students at training colleges may compete for a scholarship which entitles the winner to visit Geneva. Under this system, therefore, future schoolmasters and schoolmistresses become acquainted with the mechanism of the League and are encouraged to take an interest in contemporary international life.

In the curricula of the elementary primary schools, instruction on the League does not figure as a separate subject. The pupils in these schools are too young to understand the working of all the various bodies at Geneva. Nevertheless, schoolmasters are asked to refer to the subject both in history lessons and in lessons on ethics, in which they teach the duties of justice, co-operation and fraternity. On the proposal of the " National Union of Public Teachers in France and the Colonies ", an enquiry has been instituted to discover " what the school-child thinks of war and peace ", and therefore of the League of Nations. This enquiry is now proceeding and the 80,000 members of the Union have received the necessary instructions through their organ, *L'Ecole Libératrice*. The Executive Committee of the International Federation of Teachers' Associations has decided to extend this enquiry to all affiliated countries.

It is also interesting to note that a great number of French teachers are conducting an active campaign against schoolbooks which lay undue stress on war, and that the new text-books recommend the adoption of League of Nations methods.

* * *

How can the teacher instil into the minds of children between 11 and 14 years of age some conception of the League ? Obviously, the best course is to describe not so much the working of the institution itself as the urgent needs which it supplies : the need of peace after the war ; the need of mutual comprehension, each nation being eager to learn something about the life and thought of other nations ; the dominant thought that the lives of all nations are interdependent, when the whole trend of modern civilisation is towards an international form of life and thought in a world which is growing smaller every day.

The custom is spreading in France of celebrating a school " Peace Week " or a " League of Nations Week ". The idea is an excellent one and deserves to be encouraged. The week in question may be the one which follows the Armistice celebrations in November, or it may, if organised in connection with " Goodwill Day ", on May 18th, furnish an occasion for referring to the memorable first Conference at The Hague. During this peace week, all the lessons gravitate around the central idea of Peace (reading, enrichment of vocabulary, French composition, history, geography, ethics and civics, arithmetic even, and singing, drawing and recitation). Similarly, the moral forces of brotherly love, justice, self-restraint, and confidence in the efforts of humanity (or rather the most noble representatives of humanity) are extolled.

In order to convey to our readers some idea of the instruction given at school regarding the League of Nations, its methods and ideals, we have set out below — confining ourselves to the ethics items in the programme for the week — the outline of the talks we ourselves devote to this subject :

First talk : " The Greatest Misery of all "; or, " The Crime of War."

Second talk : " Peace by War and Peace by Peace."

Third talk : " At Geneva—the League of Nations."

* * *

1. *First talk.* — The children are first told of the appalling loss of human life in all the belligerent countries during the last war. The statistics for each country are shown on the blackboard. Master and pupils then count up together how many towns and villages, how many departments, and what proportion of the population of France these figures represent, in order that the children may realise how irrational these strange and

incredible facts are. So many dead ! So many men killed by war ! The same suffering everywhere ! The children must be made to see the pity of it all, to think of the dead, and to remember that every school in the land has its war-orphans — war-orphans ! their mention evokes yet another theme.

The children should not be told of the terrible sights of war — a child's soul is not a fit place for such horrors. It is better to liken war to a terrible earthquake, which, after all, produces the same sense of desolation : houses in ruins, people entombed, survivors in headlong flight, fire and disease ! It should, however, be pointed out that, whereas earthquakes are natural evils, warfare is the invention of the savage ingenuity of man. The teacher should explain to the children what a new war would mean, a war of aircraft and poison gas.

But, above all, the teacher should insist on the fact that war — every kind of war — is a crime, because it imposes on men the duty to kill.

2. *Second talk.* — If only the war had ensured a lasting peace ! But, alas, that is not so ; the danger of war still exists. Now, as previously, nations are arming to the teeth ; a war may break out in 1930 just as it did in 1914. Therefore, war is not a practical way of ensuring peace. War leads to further war. How ? Because it sustains hatred, creates individual resentment and a desire for revenge in the hearts of the vanquished. It is therefore obviously stupid to try to settle disputes by war.

Fortunately, other means have already been discovered for ensuring peace. Village no longer fights against village, nor town against town, as in feudal times. There are no longer in France any wars of religion. That, of course, is a triumph, and a very great triumph, of reason and social cohesion over the baser instincts. People no longer dare to avow their intentions when those intentions are ugly ones. They seem to feel that they must justify their action publicly and obtain a sort of previous pardon for the misdeed or crime they are about to commit. People try charitably to prove that their neighbour is solely and entirely to blame; at the same time, they proclaim from the housetops that they are entirely right and that the law is on their side. These very precautions mark, in one sense, a certain progress of the human conscience.

Under the Briand-Kellogg Pact, great nations have solemnly outlawed war. What is this, if not a public recognition of the

fact that war is an evil and a very unsatisfactory method of securing peace ? The expression " Holy War ", long held in high esteem, now strikes us as blasphemous. All those who have been through warfare curse it from the depths of their hearts.

How can war be " outlawed " in everyday life ? War is outlawed when, in games, all points in dispute are submitted to a referee. War is outlawed when the pupils of various schools refrain from fighting each other. War is outlawed when we thrust our hands into our pockets instead of striking our adversary. War is outlawed when you take the hand extended towards you as a sign of reconciliation or goodwill. " Dogs delight to bark and bite " — but they are animals. A human being who is really human reflects before he acts and manages to control his passions. Each one of us can thus become a guardian of the peace.

The children should be familiarised with the idea that any manifestation of violence or hatred by word or act or in writing contains the germ of war. Scrimmages " just for fun " often degenerate into thorough-going fights. To find pleasure in seeing things suffer — even such things as butterflies, birds or flies — is bad. It is bad in thought and bad in deed, and, being the survival of primeval barbarism, is all the more dangerous, in that it is partly subconscious.

Thus, given the two solutions, war and peaceful discussion, we shall have strongly stressed the moral superiority of the second. Even a war of national defence is only a makeshift, the sign of a still incomplete civilisation. War, whatever form it takes, involves killing, the slaughter of innocent and guilty alike. If we believe that France had right on her side in 1914, we must believe that she would still have been in the right even if she had been vanquished. Where true civilisation prevails, it is the moral victory and not the victory gained by brute force that counts.

Arguing along these lines, we shall have prepared the way for our next talk dealing with the League of Nations.

3. *Third talk.* — We must give our pupils some insight into that international life which is becoming more and more the characteristic of the modern world. What are the needs which the League of Nations supplies ?

We may begin, for instance, with the international campaign against tuberculosis, cancer, and various epidemics such as

influenza, typhus and plague. We will tell our pupils that neither Pasteur nor the other scientists throughout the world kept their discoveries for their own country. We shall explain why this is so and inform them that doctors and surgeons regularly meet together in international conferences. The children should then be told that at Geneva, under the auspices of the League, there exists a vast international health organisation. They should be told of the great humanitarian work of Dr. Nansen, the League of Nations High Commissioner, in repatriating prisoners of war and succouring refugees and sufferers from famine.

Why do we approach our study of the League from this angle ? Because these questions appeal to the practical, utilitarian minds of young children who cannot take any interest in political problems.

By another path we may lead our pupils to an understanding of how unemployment, transport, the production of goods, safety conditions for labour in factories, the length of the working day, are questions which concern the whole world. From an economic standpoint, all countries are interdependent (food-stuffs, clothes, tools, etc.). Is it conceivable that a country which had plenty of corn would allow a neighbouring country to starve ? The children should be made to understand why the eight-hour day is an international problem. They should then be told that at Geneva, under the auspices of the League, there is a vast international economic organisation which holds international conferences, and an International Labour Office — because, after all, in a civilised world, there ought to be work and food for everybody.

A third series of questions reveals another aspect of international life — its needs.

In order to defend their interests, former combatants in the Allied countries have grouped themselves together into an association known as " The Inter-Allied Federation of Ex-Service Men ". But another organisation has been formed which groups the ex-service men of all countries, former allies and former enemies — French ex-soldiers and German ex-soldiers, for instance. It is called " The International Conference of Associations of Disabled and other Ex-Service Men ".

What common interests can possibly unite these former enemies ? First, they all desire to proclaim that peace is preferable to war ! That the soldiers of the war mean to be soldiers of peace ! That to live in peace the various nations

must get to know and understand each other and think and act together.

For the avoidance of war, ex-service men demand compulsory arbitration for all international disputes. (The teacher should explain what this means, starting from the duties of the referee on the football field.) They also demand that armaments should be gradually reduced as the forces of peace gain strength and general security is assured.

" That, children ", the master will say, " is just what the League of Nations is doing at Geneva ; it is dealing with questions of arbitration, agreements, security and disarmament. Now you see what the League of Nations is doing — in every direction it is working for peace ! "

There the teacher may stop. He might, perhaps, however, show a few photographs of the League (the Assembly and Council in session, the portraits of President Wilson and M. Léon Bourgeois). The children can then look up on the map all the countries from which the various delegates come. He may show how speeches are interpreted and how they can be heard over the wireless as though the speakers were addressing the whole world.

In conclusion, he may ask a question. " What would have happened had there been a League of Nations in 1914 ? " This question, raised at the end of the lesson, should certainly stimulate thought. It should help to impress on the children the fact that the League is a living force working for international peace.

* * *

We shall close this rather long article by setting out, without any commentary, a list of the questions set to candidates for the higher certificate[1] in July last, in the oral examination on sociology (two questions, one concerning the League of Nations).

Questions set. — The Council of the League of Nations ; the Assembly ; the Members of the League of Nations ; outline of a lesson on the League of Nations for children of 12 ; the Covenant of the League ; the Permanent Court of International Justice ; arguments for and against the League ; the Secretariat ; how the League conducts enquiries (with examples) ; the technical organisations of the League ; the Mandates

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[1] Students of 18 who hold the elementary certificate may be candidates for the higher certificate.

Commission ; the question of Danzig ; the question of the Saar ; International Labour Conferences ; International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation ; why we should have faith in the League ; the difficulties of the League; the Briand-Kellogg Pact ; the " unanimity " rule; the Labour Charter and the International Labour Office ; the League of Nations and the formation of an international spirit.

As regards the documents placed at the disposal of the pupils during the school year, all the students have bought the publication entitled " The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations " (published by the League Secretariat).

In addition, pupils are allowed to consult the publications of the League (Information Section), various books in the Library, the series "La paix par le droit", and the bulletin of the International Bureau of Education.

Max Hébert.

Director of the Teachers' Training College for the Côtes-du-Nord, Saint-Brieuc (France).

EDUCATION AND THE SPIRIT OF THE LEAGUE.

Impressions of an English Public-School Master.

I have been asked to set down my personal impressions, and I should state, by way of preliminary warning, that they are no more than personal impressions, based on a narrow, if intensive, experience. I have made no attempt to broaden, or to blur, my personal impression by collecting, and conflating with it, the impressions of others. I believe (though, quite possibly, wrongly) that what I am going to say would be true of other English schools of the same type; further than that I should not like to go.

First let me, for the benefit of non-English readers, define the type of school. The English Public Schools are not "public" in any reasonable sense of that word. They are not owned, controlled, or supported by any State authority, national or local. They are, in fact, great private institutions, with a corporate existence stretching back in many cases to the sixteenth century or even, in a few cases, earlier. The school in which I teach was founded in the middle of the sixteenth century by a typical English merchant adventurer of Tudor times; he was an original member of the Muscovy Company, and one of the first Englishmen to cross Russia from Archangel to Astrakhan. Is this irrelevant? I think not. The heroes of the nations still live in the lives and thoughts of the nations, and the corporate life of an English Public School is curiously enriched by the memory of great, or merely worthy, men who have in past times been connected with it.

In one respect we follow to-day more markedly than ever before in the footsteps of our founder. It was recently estimated, I believe, that more than half of the "Old Boys" who had left in the last twenty years were engaged in business of some kind or other outside the British Isles — the great bulk of them, no doubt, within the limits of the British Empire.

Of the five hundred boys in this school more than four-fifths are boarders. Both boarders and "day-boys" belong to the comparatively wealthy classes, though, since this is one of the cheaper of the old Public Schools, few are the sons of definitely rich parents. Their ages range from 14 to 18.

What sort of people are these boys? The question is inevitable, for on the answer to it depends the answer to the further question, how can they best be educated in the spirit of the League? Education was made for man, and not man for education; and since there are different kinds of man (different to-day by social tradition even if not ultimately different in innate spiritual endowment), so there must be different kinds of education.

The characteristics of these English public-school boys are, in the main, the national characteristics of Englishmen, but they are the English characteristics in an intensified form, for the old English Public Schools are perhaps the most typical and the most characteristic of all English institutions. That would be admitted alike by the large class that openly loves and admires them, by the large class that secretly admires and openly abuses them, and by the large class that, for various good or bad reasons, genuinely disapproves of them.

The average English public-school boy is neither intellectual nor well-informed, but he has a good deal of inarticulate intelligence. If you question him without knowing him, you will easily induce him to make a great many very deplorable remarks about the world in general; but, if you get to know him better, you will find that these remarks do not represent what he really thinks. His real outlook on the world is, within its limits, sane, healthy, and generous; but he has an almost morbid distrust of anything which, when put into words, strikes him as " idealism".

His one form of idealism is so natural to him that he would never think of regarding it as idealistic — I mean his patriotism. But his patriotism, though profound, is eminently unaggressive. He has to-day absolutely no animus against the Germans, though his father may have been killed in the war; for he regards the war as " ancient history ". His conception of history is by no means unbiased by national pride, proper and improper, but it is curiously free from envy, hatred, malice and uncharitableness. He readily accepts Saint Joan and George Washington among the heroes of his history book, careless of the fact that one was instrumental in driving the English out of France and the other in overthrowing British control in the old colonies.

He holds that there certainly ought not to be another war between civilised peoples, and, if there should be such, he does not think it will be the fault of his own country. He regards the League of Nations with genuine, though I fear, unenthusiastic,

approval, as a device whereby the quarrelsome and painfully entangled nations of the Continent may settle their quarrels without recourse to warfare. He entirely approves of his own country giving its assistance in this matter. He does not understand about the " Protocol " or such like recondite affairs, of course; but, if they were explained to him, he would be very suspicious of any arrangement which seemed to fetter the freedom of action of his own people in the use of their own resources.

Above all, he is extremely suspicious of anything in which he detects an element of propaganda. Let me give an example. We recently had a lecture on " The Destiny of Ireland ", to which I have no doubt the boys went with minds open to the point of blankness — though, from this description, I should, of course, exclude the dozen or so of boys who come from Irish homes ! Strange as it must seem to peoples more retentive of their animosities, the English public-school boy has no more animus against the Irish Free State than he has against Australia. I did not hear the lecture, but I gather that it was quite an agreeable performance in a rather perfervidly sentimental way. But the result was the opposite of what the lecturer intended; Irish stock fell markedly in our market !

But let me take a better example. It offers closer affinities to the " League spirit ", and it happens to be a case which I have recently been investigating on a limited scale. Most of our boys have some understanding and a very real approval of the work that is being done by Foreign Missions. Very few of our boys are religious in any but the vaguest sense, but they understand that missionary work is, always in intention and often in result, work for the promotion of civilisation in the widest sense among backward races, and they entirely approve of such work. But if you ask them baldly, " Are Foreign Missions justified ? " their immediate impulse will be to say no, and they will produce the most ludicrous arguments in support of their negative. The term " Foreign Missions ", in fact, associates itself at once in their minds with ideas of propaganda, " uplift ", pulpit rhetoric and chapel collections.

Now, if our boys are the kind of people that I have described, what are we to do with them in the matter of "Education and the Spirit of the League" ? It is obvious that there is a danger of doing too much as well as a danger of doing too little. When I hear talk of making the League a "school subject" I am reminded of a story I heard many years ago of which the hero was asserted to be Lord Balfour. Someone was saying how dreadful

it was that English literature was not taught in our schools. "Well," said Mr. Balfour (as he then must have been if it was Balfour at all), "let us be thankful that on that subject at least the schoolmaster has not yet laid his blighting hand." Times have changed, and we now teach English literature with diligence, though the value of the teaching is highly problematical. Other nations, other classes, the other sex, may be — probably are — more docile and suggestible. I am only concerned with the English public-school boy.

What, then, of voluntary effort, of the establishment among the boys of a voluntary society for the study of politics, and particularly of international problems ? In spite of the steady pressure of the routine of work and games, there is much spontaneous activity in our schools, and such "political societies" often spring into life, the creation of a small group of clever boys, sometimes inspired and guided by a master. Such societies are all to the good, but it should be remembered that the boys who get most from them are those whose minds are already awake. They hardly touch the average boy.

Something can be, and, of course, is, done through the channels of ordinary class teaching in history and perhaps geography also. Questions of history syllabus come in here, and the demands of external examinations. For in one particular the public schools have ceased with rather surprising suddenness to be masters of their own destinies. A system of university-controlled "certificate examinations" has permeated the schools, and though these examinations are conducted by liberal-minded men on liberal lines, any external examination with a standard intended to secure the rejection of the stupid is bound to cramp the style of the teacher, who has to conduct his teaching in such a way as to secure certificates for as many boys as possible, and to deceive the examiners into passing boys who, on their own merits, ought not to be passed. Still, a word here and a word there, even in the course of cramming for an examination, may point a modern moral, adorn an ancient tale, and help unobtrusively to foster the "international mind".

I am myself extremely keen about teaching quite modern history, *i.e.*, the history of the last ten years, at any rate with senior boys. Such teaching is, I find, eagerly demanded, but it can, under present conditions, only be given to forms which are outside the meshes of the certificate examination system.

But any form can, and should, I think, give a little time each week to what one may call newspaper history. My own

practice is that every week each boy collects for himself four "facts" from the news of the week past — need I say that "sport" and "crime" are excluded ? We then consider these "facts" and talk about them at whatever length seems necessary within the limits of a single school hour.

And that, I think, is all I have to say. If the reader thinks it does not amount to very much, I shall not be inclined to dispute the point with him. I am convinced that it would be easy to go further and fare worse.

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THE VISITS TO ENGLAND BY THE AUFBAUKLASSEN ("NEW-METHOD" CLASSES) OF THE "KAISER FRIEDRICH REALGYMNASIUM" OF BERLIN-NEUKÖLLN.

The visits to England of the higher forms in the *Aufbauschule*[1] form part of the annual study tours made by the whole school. Every summer the upper and middle forms are sent for two or three weeks during the term to different parts of Germany to study economic and geographical features, folklore, history, geology, etc., on the spot and in accordance with a programme carefully worked out in advance. In 1927 it was, for the first time, found possible to send a class to England so that the boys could obtain a first-hand impression of the social, political and art life of the English people. The visit was repeated in 1928, and in 1929, 48 English schoolboys came to Berlin as the guests of the city and of our school, while three of our classes visited England on different occasions during the year. A number of other foreign tours were made last year, one class visiting Belgium and France, and others Austria, Danzig, Czechoslovakia, Holland, Denmark and Sweden. Naturally, the visits to England roused the keenest interest. English is the most important foreign language taught in our school; all the pupils learn English for the whole time they are at the school and there are also numerous personal contacts with England. Most of the English teachers have been in England, and our school has frequently been visited by English teachers, both men and women. Our pupils follow with close interest the economic and political problems of Great Britain and the British Empire.

It has on each occasion been very difficult to organise and finance these trips as the pupils are in nearly every case poor. The young people — last year eight girls were included in the parties — save up for a long time and on an average 40 to 50 per cent of the travelling expenses are paid by the pupils themselves. These savings are supplemented by municipal grants, private donations and a certain amount of money earned by

[1] The *Aufbauschule* provides a six years' course of secondary education leading up to the university for the benefit of pupils who have completed seven years of primary school.

theatrical performances given by the school. Expenses are appreciably reduced by the fact that school parties only pay half-fares on the German railways, a concession which was also granted to the English schoolboys when they visited Germany. Further, the Hamburg-America line granted us very reduced terms for all sea passages, including those of the English schoolboys, with the result that the crossing from Hamburg to Southampton and back, including food, only cost sixty-three marks per head. Similarly, classes which travelled *via* Ostend-Dover or The Hook-Harwich received exceptionally favourable treatment from the Belgian, Dutch and English railway companies, and obtained reductions of between 30 to 50 per cent.

The five visits so far paid to England differed widely in their programmes and the trips may be said to have proved each time progressively more valuable.

The first visit was only possible with the assistance of the Quakers. The boys stayed at the International Guest House at Sydenham near London, whence they visited the sights and made excursions. Contact was established with the British Federation of Youth and the Fellowship of Reconciliation and joint parties were arranged. Through the efforts of a family known to the leader of the party, all the boys were constantly invited to private houses so that it was possible to establish real personal relations — and these were specially valuable. In the following year, the organisation of the visit was much easier, owing, more especially, to the exceedingly kind and valuable help of a number of gentlemen and groups belonging to Toc H (Talbot House). This organisation has developed to a unique degree the ideal of service, comradeship and mutual help. In May 1928, a class of boys was enabled to stay for a fortnight at comparatively cheap rates in the centre of London and, thanks to a programme drawn up with great care, to get an impression of the many different aspects of English life. Under expert guidance, visits were paid to industrial works, docks, the Houses of Parliament, the Law Courts, theatres and sporting events, and also to Oxford, Canterbury and many other interesting places. Most important of all, however, the boys had frequent contact with young members of Toc H, either in the evenings at the club or on expeditions, or through evening invitations from private families. As the outcome of this visit, Toc H organised a return visit to Berlin by English boys from four public schools in April 1929. Our guests stayed with two forms in our school at the country school settlement of the municipality

of Berlin in the suburb of Birkenwerder. Here, too, the time was occupied by sight-seeing, visits to theatres, sporting events, etc. The visit culminated in a joint walking-tour through Saxon Switzerland.

Last summer began with a forty days' tour of England and Wales by a class of nine boys arranged on the lines of the German *Wandervõgel* tours. During this and the next trip, which for the first time included girls, our pupils came into close touch with the various English organisations for young people.

They spent ten days in a Woodcraft Chivalry Camp and stayed for the same length of time in a Toc H club in East London. During the last trip in October a class of boys was able for the first time to become acquainted with the life and work of an English public school. The Headmaster of Gresham's School, Holt, in Norfolk, invited us to spend a week as the guests of his school. The English and German boys were together as much as possible ; they fed together, played together and held joint sing-songs. Still more important, we were able to take part in all branches of study. What especially struck us was the natural and spontaneous co-operation between masters and boys on the one hand and between the older and younger boys on the other. Boys coming from the crowded and noisy working-class town of Neukölln were transported, from their old and barrack-like school building, into a totally different atmosphere, the difference extending beyond that of mere surroundings. This English school was an organisation where everything seemed to run smoothly and where, as the result of discipline, everyone behaved quietly and considerately. To this must be added a strong attachment to traditions and the Church. The visit to this school was especially important because it brought together in relations of friendliness and mutual respect boys belonging not only to two nations but to two different social strata.

There is no need to emphasise the extraordinary value of these foreign trips. In the first place, the pupils have an opportunity of practice in the language of the foreign country. They acquire a firsthand knowledge of geographical, economic and social conditions, are able to study the architecture and to see scenery, the plastic arts and historical remains, to observe the animated life of the streets and, more important still, they come into direct contact with the inhabitants of a foreign country. All the pupils spoke in the highest terms of English hospitality. For instance, we shall never forget our arrival

at Southampton late in the evening, when we were met at the quayside by a party of Quakers, who saw us through the Customs, looked after our luggage and, in the kindest possible way, provided us with refreshment and accommodation after midnight. We had the same experience wherever we went, whether we were all the guests of an association or separately invited by families.

The personal relations established by our pupils in England and by English boys in Berlin have led to many lasting friendships, as is shown by the large exchange of letters. At an age when they are particularly impressionable, these young people learned to know a foreign country as it really is and were everywhere treated like friends. From the point of view of education in all its aspects, this is of extraordinary value.

The Weimar Constitution requires that education in all schools shall be in conformity with the national character and also aim at the reconciliation of peoples. We believe that this requirement is best satisfied by creating personal relations. All our pupils left England with feelings of sincere gratitude and the deepest respect and friendship for the English people.

Dr. KARSEN.

INTERNATIONAL CAMPS FOR OLDER BOYS.

The dying embers of a last camp fire lighted the faces of the campers. The evening programme was finished. The songs of the different nations — both hilarious and serious — had been sung. A farewell message to each nation had been given, which expressed the contributions that nations had made to the life of the camp and could make to the life of the world, and the leader — a young Dutchman — had declared the Ninth International Older Boys' Camp closed. The hundred boys and leaders, representing twelve nations, remained standing in silence. The camp was over, but they were not through. No one moved. Minute after minute went by and the tenseness of the occasion held everyone in the unbroken circle. For days these boys of the various nations had been welded together by bonds of friendship, and here, on this last night, no one wanted to break the spirit which held them fast. For each knew that from this fire they would go back to their different countries, never again to see the entire group together, but still feeling a part of a larger international group — something greater than themselves or even their own nation. None wished to break the spell. They all seemed to want to hold on to this fleeting experience which was almost over. Finally a leader moved towards the fire. Then some strolled off in the darkness, others poked the fire, a few went off to drink the evening cocoa, each expressed his emotion in his own way, but all, as they left the fire, went off not to forget, but to think over the meaning of these days together.

How had it all come about ? What methods had been used to help them understand one another in spite of language difficulties ? How was it possible to know some of these boys of other lands even more intimately than friends at home ? What unifying force had made them feel one in spirit ? What bearing, if any, had such a camp and experience on the world problem of international relationship ? Had these few boys who had succeeded in hurdling the cultural barriers and religious differences discovered some simple truths which might help educationists, politicians, ecclesiastics, and labour leaders as they face world situations to-day ?

In attempting to answer some of these questions the editor has asked me to assume that all the readers are interested in developing international goodwill and understanding and to describe, somewhat in detail, the methods used during the past five years in the international older boys' camps held under the auspices of the World's Alliance of the Young Men's Christian Association. Although for seventy-nine years the Y.M.C.A. had been organised as a World's Alliance and for fifty-one years has had its World's Committee or general headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland, it was not until 1925 that a group of men became particularly interested in using the camp as a laboratory for international experimentation amongst older boys. Many national camps had had visitors from other nations, numerous world conferences had been held, but, because of the greatly increased interest in world understanding and brotherhood, a few leaders believed that the World's Alliance was in an especially favoured position, as it was organised in fifty-six nations, to do some practical investigation along these lines. Many felt that the new wave of sentiment in favour of peace might become dissipated or develop in a shallow, superficial conception of life which in the time of a crisis would go to pieces. For these reasons, and others, these camps were organised with the hope of helping youth to discover some of the underlying principles of world understanding and also to see how much interest older boys, sixteen to eighteen years of age, had in world questions.

Discovering the Purpose.

Early in the period of preparation, before the exact purpose of the camps had been formulated, two of those interested in the project asked the advice of one of the foremost living scholars. He listened attentively as we outlined our desires to aid boys dig deep into the realities of life and the international questions and to help them build on permanent foundations. Finally he said : " I'm deeply interested. We're living in times when there is much careless talk and superficial theories about international relationships. The mere fact that men of many nations sit around a banquet table and drink champagne together does not mean that international understanding is being fostered. Even the fact of international games and competitions between nations does not necessarily help for better relationships. The results may often be disastrous.

Even the knowledge of foreign languages can be used to undermine the interests of others. Mere intercourse between nations often makes for rivalry and hatred rather than co-operation and goodwill. Your experiment interests me because it is seeking to help boys share with one another their spiritual and national convictions and, in so doing, you are working in the two strongholds of prejudice, *i.e.*, culture and religion. Anything which helps mankind to use these two mighty forces in the interest of world understanding and peace is worth while. "

Such became our aim and as camp after camp has been held — each with its own character and particular message — we have become more and more convinced that national culture and spiritual convictions are not handicaps to understanding, but essential to any permanent international goodwill and peace.

The Place of the Camps.

Nine camps have been held, each in a beautiful spot which reflected the nature of the country. Twice the camps have met in Camp Vaumarcus, Lake Neuchatel, Switzerland, where the French Swiss Y.M.C.A.'s hold their conferences. Here we lived in barracks, climbed the Jura, looked across the lake to the high Alps and revelled in the historic and majestic scenes of Switzerland. The spirit of the old lake dwellers — the earliest inhabitants of Europe — still seemed to haunt the lakes and the woods and reminded us of the civilisation which had grown up around us. This old civilisation with all its richness, culture and beauty, had been found wanting in the hour of crisis and had almost destroyed itself through war. The question constantly before the youth at Vaumarcus was — " Can we build better ? Have we learned our lesson ? "

The largest camp with two hundred and eighty seven boys was held in a school house in Helsingfors, Finland. It was a part of a World's Conference but, just as truly as in the out-of-doors camps, it became an experience in living together.

Once, as the guests of the King of England, the boys lived in a quiet, historic spot in the Royal Windsor Forest. Rhododendrons surrounded us, special tents housed us, and an occasional trip to the Castle or other well-known places helped us feel the life of England.

Then, on the shores of Lake Balaton, Hungary, surrounded by vine covered hills which were often capped by ancient ruins of old castles which mutely spoke of former glories, we

were royally entertained by the National Committee of the Y.M.C.A. of Hungary. Boys of Central and South-Eastern Europe predominated at this camp and brought us in touch with the currents of thought, hopes and prejudices which sweep across this part of the world.

Another summer it was at Visby, Gothland, Sweden — the place of sacrifice. It had seen strange people during its thousand years of history as it had been conquered and reconquered by all the nations bordering on the Baltic. Even the Barbarians, who swept down on Rome, are supposed to have originated on this island. The boys at this camp pitched their tents at Fridhem near Visby, the home of peace. They represented all the nations of the Baltic and their ancestors were once the rulers of this island.

This summer three different spots were chosen. One was in the old castle at Wernfels near Nurnberg. The boys lived in the ancient rooms of the thirteenth century, explored the hillsides of southern Germany and came to know the historic meaning of Nurnberg, Rothenburg and Bavaria. Another group lay out on the heather in Holland, where the highest hill was three hundred feet high, rode bicycles through the forests and enjoyed the sunsets and wonderful cloud effects which Dutch artists have made world famous. Still another group were living under canvas near Unzen, Japan. This is one of the picturesque spots in those islands of beauty.

The boys have lived in tents, barracks, castles, and school-rooms. Although in every location the camps have been successful, where possible the boys should be out in the open, free from conventionality, able to wear camp clothes, go swimming, play at sports and have plenty of opportunity for quiet walks in historic places.

The Place determines the Representation.

Representation at the camps depends somewhat on where the camp is located. For this reason the camp in Gothland had boys from the Northern European lands. The location of the camp also determines the homogeneity of the group and the method of approach to the problems. For example: the Gothland camp, because most of the boys came from lands with a Lutheran background, discussed religious questions differently from the boys in the Hungarian camp where Greek Orthodox, Roman

Catholics, Calvinists, Lutherans and various denominations in the U.S.A. were represented.

Wherever possible, use camp equipment or sites belonging to national movements. The expense of establishing new grounds is prohibitive. It is always advisable to have a large building or tent which can be used in case of rainy weather.

Who are the Boys and how are they recruited ?

In these camps older boys are thought of as from sixteen to eighteen years of age. Many of them are from the schools, some are working youths while others are unemployed. The different social strata enrich the camp.

Most of the boys are members of national Y.M.C.A. movements, although the camps are not limited to these. Generally, they come from twelve to twenty nations.

The best results have been secured when boys come as elected delegates from local groups. England, for example, generally sends a boy from each of its regional districts. Other boys help pay the expenses and upon his return the delegate reports to many local groups in his district. Boys from the U.S.A. often represent whole states, having been chosen at a state convention or camp, and when they return they send a written report to every local group in their states. The sense of representation of both organisations and nations puts seriousness into the discussions and an added sense of responsibility.

How many Boys in Each Camp ?

The camps are limited to a hundred and forty older boys and leaders. This is very important for if a camp is too large it loses its personal elements, the boys become just part of a mass, and an intelligent understanding of one another is practically impossible. Generally, a leader comes with each national delegation — not so much to lead or dominate, but to help interpret his nation to others. One of the greatest by-products of the camps has resulted from the leaders of different nations working together in a common task.

No one nation is permitted to dominate because of numbers. Delegations vary in size from one or two to twenty. A camp with five or six nations with delegations of the same size is often more successful.

How the Camp is Organised.

The boys are divided into international tent groups upon their arrival in camp. Ten to fifteen boys are placed in a group with one or two adults. Generally, six to nine nations are represented in each tent group. This tent group becomes the unit of the organisation of the camp. Games are played between tent groups. Devotions or Bible-study centres around them. Where possible, the tent group eats at the same table. This facilitates greatly the announcements at meal-time and also makes for a group spirit. This type of organisation makes for international fellowship, avoids national cliques, and affords the largest number of opportunities for contact. Some of the most helpful conversation during the camp takes place between the boys after all have gone to bed and just before going to sleep.

The adult leader lives with the boys, becomes their group leader in discussions and acts as advisor in the various activities of the camp.

Boys elect their Officers.

Each tent group at the end of the first day elects representatives to the various camp committees. The following representatives are chosen :

President. — The presidents of the different tent groups meet daily with the head of the camp and together they discuss the general spirit and problems.

Secretary. — The committee of secretaries keeps general notes on the camp and occasionally publishes an evening paper which is filled with humour, reports and messages.

Athletic Representative. — This committee, with an adult adviser, plans the games, trips, etc., for the camp, giving special attention to the learning of different national games and seeing that all boys play.

Camp Fire and Social Representative. — This committee arranges for the evening programme of song, stunts, sociability around the camp fire and, whenever desirable, a special celebration.

Devotional Representative. — This committee discusses with the leader in charge of devotions the results of the morning devotional period or Bible-study ; what questions seem to interest the boys and what special emphasis needs to be made the following day.

Commissary Representative. — This committee, under the leader in charge of the kitchen and camp grounds, discusses the type of meals desired and helps in the waiting at table and cleaning of the camp.

Each session of these committees gives the boys an opportunity to help in the running of the camp and also makes for friendliness and fellowship. All these committees are international.

Languages.

The first apparent hazard in an international gathering is that of language. This difficulty is not as serious in an older boys camp — if rightly organised — as in conferences and larger gatherings. Generally, two or three languages are used. In one camp, however, it was necessary to use seven languages before all the boys could understand. No one man can know all languages, but in an international group many languages are generally known.

Most European older boys, especially if living in the smaller countries, know one other language besides their own, either French, English or German. While their knowledge is not sufficient to translate an address before a large group, it is satisfactory when used in conversation or in small groups.

National leaders who have a knowledge of one other language than their own should be selected. It may not be necessary for the leader to act as an interpreter, but it is always better if the man presiding over a discussion understands what is being said by all the members of the group.

Wherever possible, there should be one or two men in camp who have had international experience, know something of the thought life of the countries represented and have a sufficient knowledge of languages in order to interpret in the larger meetings.

Translation not a Handicap.

The need for translation has in many respects become an asset rather than a handicap.

1. It causes boys to be sensitive to the needs of others. I have yet to see a group of older boys become impatient while a member of their group has been trying to explain to another what has been said.

2. Speakers, whether adults or boys, gradually eliminate the fine phrases, words used for effect, oratorical gestures, and say in simple language what they have to say.

3. Hackneyed phrases, slang, etc., which may mean something to one person or group are left out because no one can explain them. Even theological, educational and national terms must be simplified. This all makes for clarity and simplicity of thought.

4. Small groups become more effective than large meetings. The camp becomes a conference, where boys confer together, rather than an international listening meeting.

5. When addresses are necessary—and we have found that in recent years it is wise that the subject for discussion be presented by one man—the boys need to be seated by language groups so that, as the speaker speaks, simultaneous translation to all the groups can be made. In the Hungarian camp, for example, seven languages were used. The boys would be seated in a circle around the camp fire, each boy, however, in a group where his own language was being used. The speaker would give a sentence or an incident or paragraph in German and then pause while the six interpreters simultaneously spoke to their groups. The effect was like the wind blowing through the forest. At first there was confusion, but gradually the boys became accustomed to the murmuring and listened to their own language.

6. Translation also gives time for thought, and many a boy has learned to think over the subject under discussion more carefully because he had time to consider what he was going to say before saying it.

Our handicaps, therefore, often become our assets. Without one or two men, however, who are thoroughly at home in several languages your camp will not be successful.

What Food do you give the Boys ?

Food in a camp is important. Health, and often happiness, depends on it. What about an international camp ? Gradually there may be developed an international stomach, but we are often more nationalistic in our eating than any other single thing.

Is it to be an English breakfast with eggs and bacon or a French breakfast with " petit pain " and coffee ? Many boys,

especially from the States, do not like coffee or tea, and as for highly-seasoned " Hungarian gulash " the stomach does not digest it.

We have not as yet attempted an international menu. Ordinarily, the camp follows the custom of the country except that, where the breakfast would ordinarily consist of coffee and rolls, quaker oats and milk are added. The ordinary menu is somewhat as follows :

Breakfast: Coffee or cocoa,
Bread (without butter),
Quaker oats and milk (Sweden served us cream and cheese).

Dinner: Soup,
Meat, potatoes or rice,
Vegetable or salad (often served in the soup plate, which does not appeal to some boys),
Dessert.

Tea: Called tea in some countries, but the English are never quite sure if it is or not (served with lemon in Hungary, milk in England, both ways in Sweden).

Supper: Great variety,
Sandwiches (with cheese and "Wurst" in Germany),
Macaroni or rice.

In some camps hot cocoa is served at 10 p.m.

Some boys after the same menu feel stuffed, others hungry. Do not worry too much about complaints if you are giving sufficient food and a well-balanced diet. The boys will remember the camp long after the food is forgotten.

The Programme of the Camp.

Generally the camps are from eight to ten days in length. The daily schedule varies in details, but ordinarily is somewhat as follows :

7.00 — — Rising bell ; Washing, bathing when possible, sometimes physical exercises (in recent years these have been done away with) ;

8.00 : Breakfast ;
8.45-9.30-9.45 : Devotional period or Bible-study by tent groups (see comments) ;
10.00-11.15 : Games of the nations (see below) ;
11.15-12.30 : Discussion groups for consideration of theme of the day ;
12.45 : Dinner ;
1.30-2.30 : Rest ;
3.00-4.30 : Athletics, competitions ;
4.30 : Tea ; meeting of Committees ;
6.30 : Supper ;
7.00 : Leaders' meeting ;
8.15 ; Camp fires ;
10.15 : Cocoa ;
10.30 : To bed.

Devotional Period or Bible-study.

In many camps this has been the most interesting part of camp life. Practically every group of campers have asked for more time. The method used each time varies. When the boys are from Protestant families and movements, the Bible itself is used or a study outline based on the Bible. When however, large groups of Roman Catholic or Greek Orthodox boys are in the camp the Bible would not be used, but interest would be centred on some of the religious problems facing youth to-day. Several fundamental lessons are learned during this period.

1. God often changes in their thinking from a purely national God to a Father of all mankind.

2. The Bible is discovered as an international book and two things happen. Each boy feels at home in this international group as he reads the Bible in his own language and, secondly, the truths in the Bible become bigger than his own national conception of them. His religious horizon is broadened.

3. Religion in the discussion is seen as a factor and force in the international world and a basis for understanding.

4. Strange as it may seem, boys express their doubts and problems more freely in an international setting than in a national one.

The Game Period.

Care should be taken to have the necessary equipment for such games as *Schlagball* (Germany), volley ball (international), rounders—a form of cricket—(England), *boules*—bowling (France), base-ball and basket-ball (U.S.A.), football (international). During this hour, an attempt is made to get all the tent groups in competition on some game. All the boys are familiar with some games and ignorant of others, so it becomes a case of "Show the other fellow how to play". Winning becomes secondary and national competition tabooed. Experience in two camps has shown that competition between nations is out of place in such a camp. It cuts across the spirit of the days together. The boys in Japan requested that the competition be limited so as to give more free time for walks in the woods with friends.

Morning Discussions.

Generally, two or three tent groups join together for the morning discussion. Questions of international importance become uppermost. The choice of these subjects depends on the part of the world where the camp is meeting, the type of boys and the general trend of thought amongst youth.

Such questions as the following were of chief interest this summer :

To what or whom does youth owe its highest loyalty ? Family, nation, State, God.

What can be learned from other youth movements ? Examples : Socialistic, Fascist, Communistic. (It is always helpful to have a person present who knows the trends of thought in such movements.)

What should a Christian think and do about war ?

What is the difference between loyalty to the State or nation ?

Problems of industry and labour.

Problems of peace.

Such questions as the relations between boys and girls, choosing a vocation, service to the school or church, are more difficult to discuss in an international camp because of their personal, local and national character.

Too great an emphasis cannot be placed on the need for qualified leadership for discussion groups. It is often well to

use two or three leaders for one group, so that they can confer together. The leader is not there to compel the group to think one way, but to encourage free expression from the boys. When adults are present the boys should always be given the opportunity to speak first. The discussions are not an opportunity for adults to instruct boys, but rather for boys to share with one another, calling upon the adults for facts and guidance whenever they get beyond their own experience. Whenever possible, the leaders should meet together before camp begins.

The Evening Camp Fires.

As in many camps the camp-fire becomes the centre of the life of the camp, so also in the international camps the fires have come to symbolise the spirit of friendship. The fires are held every night except that, for one evening near the close of the camp, the boys meet by national groups around national fires. Here, with only one language, the boys share with one another the experience of the camp and discuss what can be done upon the return home. The programme at the fires varies, but generally it is somewhat as follows :

Singing — (there is still a tremendous need for international songs or national songs known to the boys of different nations). Old folk songs are sometimes used, parodies, crazy camp songs with no meaning, but simply tunes, which are repeated again and again. National patriotic airs are not used, for, when brought together in an international camp, the sentiment and words of many of the national songs are out of harmony with the spirit of such a camp. Words which seem harmless and often appropriate at home are rude and causes of hatred away from home.

Some of the finest evenings have been spent as boys of the different nations have sung songs which express the soul of their nation and the culture of its people. When the stirring notes of the Scandinavians are followed by the softer notes of the Slavs or the tragic sounds of the Russians, or the spirited harmony of the French, or the sweet pathos of the negro spirituals — then do the boys begin to sense the depth of the lives of these different peoples.

Following the songs come camp fire games or stunts. Here again different nations perform. The type of performance varies from a drama without words to words without drama.

Near the end of each evening, one of the national leaders closes the camps with devotions. Here again the boys experience the different ways of expressing religious truth. Each leader is free to do what he wishes and to share with the boys his own deepest religious experience.

Then, at the close, the boys rise and each, in his own language, joins together in the Lord's Prayer.

Two ceremonies have grown up a round theevening camp, fire which have helped to symbolise the spirit of the camp. The first takes place on the first night in the camp. The fire is laid, but not lighted. As the boys sit in the circle around the unlighted fire the leader tells about the other camps—what they have meant to boys. Then the old campers, each with his torch of goodwill, proceed to light the fire. Following this, a representative boy from each nation comes to the fire, places a stick on the fire, symbolic of his nation's contribution to the life of the camp and then brings words of greeting from the boys of his nation.

The Fire of Friendship.

The other ceremony takes place on the closing night. Again the unlighted fire — now known as the fire of friendship — is in the centre. The chief idea of this ceremony of farewell is unity in diversity — that, as the flames leap from stick to stick and a fire is kindled, so are two boys of different nations held together by the spirit of friendship. After the singing of camp songs and an address by the leader, boys representing each continent bring some chocolate, wheat flour, rice, wool, or sugar and place it in the flames, symbolising the idea that the daily necessities of the camp have been furnished by the youth of the world.

Messages from the Nations.

Boys representing different nations then bring a stick and, placing it on the fire, read a message from the boys of their nation who have been present in the camp. It expresses what the camp has meant to them and what they hope to do about it. The leader, as each national representative speaks, gives a charge to that nation stressing its part in the life of the world and the family of nations.

Then follows the ceremonies of lighting the " Torches of Goodwill ".

Every boy should have a short stick about two feet in length on which representatives of different nations have either written or carved their initials or names. The boys come together and light their torches, going back into the circle and repeat together the following words. This statement is not a pledge, but expresses the general purpose of the camp :

> " We leave this fire conscious of differences, but with a new vision of Christian fellowship and a deeper faith in God, our Father, and determined, under Christ's leadership, to work for peace and goodwill among men. "

What can we learn from Such Camps ?

Is there any message or lesson which applies to life outside of the World's Alliance of the Young Men's Christian Association ? Can a few hundred boys teach us some of the underlying principles and essentials for world peace and understanding ?

The question admits of no direct answer, but to those who have been in all the camps it has been interesting to see how each has developed its own character, emphasised some special message, and taught an essential truth. Together, these truths have formed an international camp mosaic of various figures, colours and ideas, held together by a magnificent, unifying motive and force.

Variety enriches Life more than Uniformity.

The first camp in Vaumarcus began to make clear this truth and each succeeding experience has enlarged upon it. To this camp both leaders and boys came in the spirit of experimentation. Together they sought an answer to some of the international ills. The war was still a reality. Opinions clashed. Boys and leaders were champions of their national cultures. Out of this crucible of conflicting opinions and experience one conviction emerged. Variety enriches life and thought. Uniformity is not essential or desirable for peace. The " fellowship of differing minds may be like to that above ". The goal of international fellowship is not to force all to think alike, neither to discover the least common denominator for agreement, but to find a spiritual unity in which youth can freely express its

deepest convictions, disagree with one another and still have respect and love for each other.

May I illustrate by what took place when we discussed the subject of war ? In the midst of the discussion, an older boy stated that under no conditions would he ever resort to physical force either in the defence of his country, his home or of another. He stated his position so simply and still so clearly that other boys were interested. Questions started to fly. " What would you do ", asked a boy from America, " if someone should break into your home and attack your mother ? " The other boy, paused for a moment before he replied and then quietly answered: "I do not know what I would do, but I trust that I would still have faith enough in spiritual powers not to resort to physical force ". A few minutes later an older boy from one of the Continental nations, with as much sincerity, said: "War is justifiable. The State has a right to demand of its citizens that they fight. War is the only way our nation and its young men can regain their self-respect ". He hoped there would be another war. Those two boys never could agree, but both learned in the camp to respect each other and still work together in the interests of a greater ideal.

Youth is ready to work with Adults.

This is the second thought. In our movement age has been, and still is, in the saddle working for youth and often telling youth what to do. Our organisation is not alone in this. A few years ago youth in some countries took the reins and started to drive. This period has passed. These camps have clearly demonstrated that youth — older boys of sixteen to eighteen — are not only ready but willing and capable of taking a place in any effort for peace. Youth should not take the place of age, it cannot; but neither should age usurp the right of youth. Great results can be expected if carefully selected older boys, coming, if possible, as representatives of their fellows, are given an ever-enlarging place in world, national and local conferences. World citizens — as well as national citizens — are not born or just happen, but are made by experience and training.

Youth craves Friends.

That youth to-day craves personal friendships is the third thought. These friendships are often difficult to develop because

of the handicaps of language, cultures and frontiers but, when the opportunity is given, youth leaps over these barriers and builds lasting friendships.

Youth demands Reality and Facts.

It was especially in Szigliget, Hungary, that this fourth truth was emphasised.

Here youth demanded facts, reality, then more facts. Discussion throbbed with life. Words became alive. Cut them, they would bleed. Still, through it all, this one fact stood out, that youth was willing, yes, even eager, to face reality and was not interested when controversial subjects were glossed over or when the cancers on our international life were only sprinkled with the rose-water of goodwill. " Test all things : hold fast to that which is good " became the slogan.

This was very strikingly illustrated at a discussion which took place on the last Sunday of the camp between representatives of Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Roumania and Yugoslavia. The talk was lively and the old and familiar differences were frankly and even passionately set forth. I sat by, listening, and then, when each side had stated their view, I asked, naively, " Shall we go deeper into these differences ? " " Not to-day ", they replied, " we want to go swimming. "

So, as the group went down to bathe together, I realised that there were times when playing together was more effective than talking together. Later in the day members of the group came to me and indicated that the main reason they did not want to go any deeper that day into the discussion was because it was the last day in camp and they felt it was not wise to spend the last day in discussing their political differences, because during the camp they had discovered a greater unity and a finer fellowship than they felt was possible because of their common faith in God, the Father of them all.

Youth needs God.

This fifth truth may seem foreign and controversial to many interested in international understanding. Is not religion a personal affair alone ? Can we believe in a God — a purposive force at work in the world — a Father who cares what happens in the affairs of men ?

The camps, at least, have demonstrated the fact that youth to-day, at least some youth, is seeking an answer to the meaning of life. At times youth seems tired of just going through activities, building up Utopias only to see them shattered, and discussing international issues and the building of a new world when life itself has lost its meaning and God seems far away. Many a group at camp have renewed their faith in God. He has gradually changed from a national God to a Father of all mankind. A basis for faith in international brotherhood is discovered and a sense of a power, greater than themselves, which works for righteousness is felt.

During these days when men are building organisations, signing pacts, holding international conferences, it is well to learn the lesson taught by the boys in camp, that man alone cannot rebuild a world of peace. Without God and a deep spiritual life these organisations too easily become mere pieces of machinery without life, without vision and without hope.

And this brings me to the last thought. Our camps have been composed of boys with a Christian heritage. They have differed in their interpretation of Christianity, but still their lives have been influenced by its teaching. Because of this fact, the boys have discovered that owing to their common possession of a character and personality like Christ a greater unifying force is found — or could be found — in Him.

This fact has significance because to-day the peace and the wars of the world are largely in the hands of nations which profess to be Christian. It is therefore one of the many vital living forces which can be used in developing international goodwill and understanding amongst men.

TRACY STRONG.

AMERICAN COLLEGES IN THE NEAR EAST.

An experiment in developing the spirit of international co-operation has been going on in a group of American colleges in the Near East for many years. The oldest of these institutions are Robert College of Constantinople and the American University of Beirut, Syria, both founded in 1863. Constantinople Women's College was established in 1871 and, not long after, the International College at Smyrna was opened. During the same period, there were developing in Bulgaria a school for boys and another for girls which have blossomed in recent years into the American College of Sofia. Finally, in 1925, the American College at Athens was established.

Since the great war, a new spirit of intercollegiate co-operation has developed in this group. Three joint financial campaigns, embracing part or all of them, have been carried out successfully in the United States — the first for paying off deficits of war days, the next for providing annual funds for maintenance for a period of five years, and the last for securing the endowment necessary to provide for a normal annual budget. The colleges have also agreed not to duplicate needlessly schools for professional training. Thus the American University of Beirut is specialising in medical training, nursing, dentistry and pharmacy, while Robert College specialises in civil, mechanical and electrical engineering.

Each has its own Board of Trustees in the United States of America independent of any religious or social organisation, and each is incorporated under the laws of some state. Robert College and the American University of Beirut were incorporated by the State of New York and are under the direct supervision of the Board of Regents of New York. Others are incorporated in Massachusetts. While varying considerably in scope and method these American colleges in the Near East are operated in accordance with certain common fundamental principles which may be analysed as follows.

1. The faculty and organisation of each is thoroughly and frankly international.

2. Each college is open to all students regardless of creed or race, and three of them have a distinctly international student body.

3. The curriculum and all student activities are definitely planned to give to each student a training which will fit him well for life in his own nation, each being trained in his own language, literature, history and geography. No attempt is made to denationalise or to proselytise or to "Americanise".

4. Every effort is made to co-operate with the national government and with the Department of Public Instruction of the country where the college is located. Their authority is fully recognised and their desires as to the education of their citizens are carried out.

5. The development of world-mindedness through national loyalty and international knowledge and co-operation is constantly sought.

The practical application of these principles may be illustrated in the following ways :

1. Since its foundation, the faculty of Robert College has included members of many nationalities, each of whom has had equal voting privileges. The teaching staff now numbers 105, divided among twelve nationalities as follows: 38 Americans, 28 Turks, 10 Armenians, 7 Greeks, 5 English, 5 Swiss, 3 Russians, 3 Bulgarians, 2 Germans, 2 French, 1 Belgian and 1 Austrian. Each important racial group of students has its own departmental head and its own organised staff. Constantinople Women's College and the University at Beirut are organised along similar lines.

2. The international character of the student body is well shown by the racial figures for the current year at Robert College, viz, Turks 395, Greeks 109, Armenians 95, Bulgarians 56, Israelites 27, Albanians 11, Americans 10, Persians 10, and smaller numbers from sixteen other races — a total of 750. Although the majority of these students are naturally Turkish by citizenship, about twenty other political affiliations are represented, as well as 66 who are Bulgarian citizens and 31 who come from Greece. According to religion, 415 are Moslem, 175 Orthodox, 77 Gregorian, 36 Protestant, 29 Hebrew and 12 Roman Catholic. The 450 students at Constantinople Women's College show a similar distribution, while 95% of the students at the International College, Smyrna, are now Turks, thus corresponding in close degree to the present population of Anatolia. The 1,340 students registered at the University

of Beirut come from all the states of the Eastern Mediterranean, including large numbers of Egyptians, Iraq, Persians, Palestinians and Syrians, with a scattering of many other races.

3. By means of a throughly international staff, curriculum work is carried on in almost every language of the Near East as well as in English, and although these colleges are denominated "American" in so far as the original source of inspiration and the main source of funds are concerned, their graduates are sought in every land of the Near East as teachers of the native languages, literatures and histories. A study of the careers of the alumni for sixty years shows that by far the larger part have devoted their lives to leadership and service among their own nationals, and in most cases with an unusual degree of tolerance for and understanding of the inter-racial problems and difficulties so prevalent through the Near East.

4. Remarkable demonstration of Government co-operation and approval have occurred in all these colleges. Groups of Government students have been sent to Beirut from the Sudan, Iraq, Trans-Jordan, Palestine, Arabia, and Abyssinia. Relatives of the Sheikh of Bahrein are among the students there. A group of eleven noble sheikhs of the Druse sect made a special trip to Beirut to express their appreciation of the education being given there to thirty-six young Druses. Sons and daughters of cabinet ministers, deputies and Government officials of Turkey are in attendance on the three American colleges in that country. The Ministry of Commerce at Angora has been supporting for years a large group of Turkish students in the Engineering School of Robert College. The Ministry of Public Instruction has recently recognised this Engineering School as a full professional course of University grade. The various Governments concerned have given full and official recognition to the degrees bestowed by the colleges. These degrees include the B. A. and B. S., and engineering and medical degrees.

5. In addition to the subjects usually taught in American colleges, special courses are given in international problems and relations. Lectures on the League of Nations and its work are given annually by such men as Prof. Shotwell and Dr. Manley Hudson. Political Science Forums and International Relations Clubs are organised among the students. Student debates on international questions are frequent. Books on such topics

are constantly being added to the college libraries. Robert College celebrates every May a special peace day, the programme of which is planned by the students. A considerable group of students from these Near Eastern colleges, representing five races and aided by special funds, spent the summer of 1929 at Geneva, following courses in the Geneva School of International Studies and utilising the resources of the International Labour Office and of the library of the League of Nations.

Special mention should be made in this report of the new American college at Athens and of the re-born American college at Sofia. Both are typical of the practical expression of a new form of international co-operation. Athens College is a distinct outgrowth of Robert College. It is the result of the desire of the Greek alumni of Robert College to have in Greece an American college which should play the same rôle in drawing races and religions together as Robert College has played in Constantinople and the Near East. Its trustees in the United States of America and its board of directors and teaching staff in Athens are distinctly international. Although now only in its fourth year, 300 Greek students crowd its new plant in the vicinity of Athens. An endowment fund of half a million dollars has been given by citizens of Greece and of the United States, and a group of new buildings which will cost a similar amount will be completed before long. The government and citizens of Greece have given this new American college their heartiest commendation and co-operation.

The situation of the American College of Sofia is even more encouraging from the international point of view. Within five years a fine site of 90 acres five miles from Sofia has been secured. Sixteen new buildings, including large dormitories, recitation halls, dining-rooms, workshops and professors' houses, have been constructed at an outlay of several hundred thousand dollars. The Bulgarian Government has co-operated in every way. The Bulgarian Parliament has appropriated the proceeds of timber lands which will eventually net sufficient money to build a modern dormitory for 150 students. A similar building is the gift of a Greek tobacco merchant, formerly a student at Robert College and now an American citizen. The same friend has given largely to the endowment of Athens College. The college is co-educational. Students are received only at the age of 14, and the course continues into university work. New

students are received only after competitive examination and twice as many apply as can be accommodated. The staff is truly inter-racial.

Over 3,500 students of twenty-nine nationalities and fifteen different religious sects are being educated in these six American colleges of the Near East in a spirit which combines wholesome national loyalty with effective international co-operation. Over 3,000 Syrians, Greeks and Armenians now resident in America and over 10,000 American citizens have contributed in the last three years to the funds which are making it possible for these colleges to carry on their work. Large contributions have also been made by the Hall Estate, the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial, Mr. Edward S. Harkness, Mr. John D. Rockefeller Jr., Mr. Arthur Curtiss James, Mr. Julius Rosenwald and others. In 1919 there were fifty contributors to the colleges. In 1929 there were 13,000. This indicates the growing confidence of the American public in these outposts of a new world-mindedness. These institutions are forerunners of the kind of intellectual and social international co-operation which the League of Nations is now seeking to develop.

G. H. HUNTINGTON,
Vice-Principal of Robert College.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

Some Recent Developments.

The last issue of the *Educational Survey* contained an account of the steps taken, under the auspices of the League of Nations, to bring together institutions in various countries engaged in the scientific study of international affairs. It was pointed out that a number of new institutions had grown up in this field since the war, and a brief description was given of their wide scope and varied activities, ranging from the work of an ordinary academic faculty at the one end to informal discussions amongst groups of carefully chosen experts at the other. An effort was also made to explain why, in spite of their readiness to associate together for common international tasks, these institutions had, for psychological reasons, grown up for the most part on a national rather than on an international basis. Thus, it has come about that, so far as university studies are concerned, an actual international society, such as existed in the mediæval universities, has, with certain rare exceptions due to special and temporary conditions[1], only been brought into existence in institutions that provide short periods of education outside the normal course of the academic year. In the following pages an attempt is made to give some further account of the technique involved in these developments in what may be described as a new type of education brought into existence to meet the needs of the post-war world.

What, in fact, is the problem involved in the study of international affairs ? Too often it has been regarded as being simply a matter of acquiring information about current events or existing conditions and institutions, and the need was considered to be sufficiently met by pamphlets and handbooks, supplementing the newspaper and the periodical, and very often issued in connection with some particular " cause ". In its early years even the League of Nations itself was regarded as such a " cause ", and a knowledge of the Covenant and the organisation of the League was considered in some quarters as a sufficient basis for the formation of a judgment on questions of worldwide range or intricate local complexity. To have learnt the difference between Article XI and Article XV was a

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[1] Such as those described in Dr. Huntington's article on page 47 this issue.

passport to the free expression of dogmatic opinions on the subject of Mosul or Upper Silesia.

Happily, however, this superficial and propagandist attitude of mind has been steadily giving place in recent years to more truly educational methods. When the representatives of the various institutions concerned with the study of international relations found themselves assembled in conference, their first step was to recognise that the study of international affairs was not an independent branch of enquiry, but simply the natural culmination of work pursued in the various scientific disciplines concerned with public affairs. Thus the understanding of the Young Plan or of the Briand-Kellogg Pact or of the existing situation in China, though, no doubt, it depends in each case upon access to reliable sources of information, exactly as in the case of the understanding of a historical problem such as the Crusades, cannot be arrived at without a training in the political sciences. To pass a judgment on the Young Plan without a knowledge of economics, or on the Briand-Kellogg Pact without a knowledge of international law, or on existing conditions in China without the power of thinking geographically, is to descend from the realm of wisdom to that of mere opinion. The distinction is as old as Plato, who, in a memorable passage, contrasted the knowledge and sure judgment of the philosopher with the irresponsible imagination of the ordinary man. We live in a world in which responsibility has become the heritage of the many, and even though not all or even the majority in a democratic community can to-day exercise it, in any real sense, in regard to strictly international problems, it is nevertheless urgently necessary to extend its range as widely as possible. This is the only way in which to destroy once and for all the romanticism which has been one of the main causes of error and even of war in international relations. Responsibility and false sentiment are mutually incompatible.

The study of international affairs is, in fact, nothing less than the problem of understanding the world in which we live. But, since politics is not only a science but an art, the responsible student of international affairs is seeking not only to understand but, by understanding, to participate in control.

The world of to-day has been made what it is by science. The ideas of the mathematicians and physicists of the seventeenth century and their development and the practical application given to them in the last two hundred years have brought into existence conditions far more different not only

materially but also intellectually and spiritually from those of the eighteenth century "enlightenment" and of the French Revolution than these were from the world of antiquity. How has this change been brought about? Through association between scientific thought and practical organisation, the thinkers supplying the ideas and those accustomed to practical action adjusting them to the material needs in each case. The development of this process has involved an increasing degree of specialisation in the work of scientific discovery, until to-day the accumulation of scientific knowledge has become so great and the activities of research involve such minute ramifications that the men who are actually engaged in transforming and revolutionising our world live themselves for the most part in complete isolation from it. The Platonic philosopher in his cave was not more lonely than the first-rate scientific thinker of to-day who can sometimes find only a handful of men scattered throughout the globe capable of understanding the movement of his thought. Socrates and Plato were far nearer to the citizens, and even to the slaves in the market-place in Athens, than are the leading thinkers of to-day to most of the newspaper readers for whom their discoveries are so diligently popularised.

Thus the present generation is confronted with the paradoxical situation that science, in the very act of creating an interdependent and international society has isolated herself, and thereby forfeited the opportunity of controlling the practical applications of her own ideas. The laboratory, which disrupted the old-world society and slew its millions in the great war, is as sequestered from the main currents of modern life as was the mediæval monastery. But, whereas the monk prayed and laboured for a world transformed according to his ideas, the scientist watches the transformation which he has set in motion and peacefully continues his researches.

Nor is this contact between the realm of thought and the realm of action true only of the natural sciences. It may be observed also, if not in so striking a form, in the narrower field of the political studies. But here the divorce between thought and action is even more disastrous. The mathematicians and the physicists can indeed pursue their researches and reach accurate results in the silence of their laboratories, though they may be taxed with irresponsibility for taking no steps to control the use that is made of them. But the study of politics, whether of government proper or of law or of social and economic forces, is doomed to sterility unless it is carried on in close contact

with reality. For the student of politics there is no other laboratory than the world of affairs. Isolate him in a university or an academy and he will soon cease to be a political enquirer and will degenerate into a mere pedantic chronicler of obsolete formulæ.

The converse to this is equally true. If the practical organisers, who have developed such skill in applying the discoveries of chemists and physicists to material things, can achieve their purposes satisfactorily through trained intermediaries without recourse to the services of the great men themselves, this does not hold good in the field of politics. Political thought cannot be isolated from political action without lasting injury on both sides. The thinkers become sterilised, for lack of fresh material for their reflections, while those who are compelled to face political realities day by day and are in constant need of sound principles to guide them in their task tend, in default of assistance from the students of to-day, to fall back upon the established truths of yesterday. It is difficult to give instances in what is necessarily a controversial realm. No one, however, who has studied the new constitutions established after the great war can fail to see in them frequent examples of decisions arrived at on the basis of nineteenth- and even eighteenth- century traditions in political science rather than on the living experience of the present age.

If, therefore, the citizen of to-day is to be enabled to form a responsible judgment on international affairs, means must be found for bridging the gap between scientific study and practical experience. What would seem to be needed is some form of education combining the best specialist discipline in the studies bearing on public affairs with the ripe experience derived from a contact with the realities of politics. Such a technique must, if it is to be adequate to its purpose in exhibiting the problems of the contemporary world, be presented by authorities from many countries ; and it will be an added advantage if it can be worked out in the atmosphere of an equally international society.

So far, the argument has been developed on theoretical lines. It is natural to ask whether an education process of this kind has actually been brought into existence. For reasons explained in an article in the preceding issue, it cannot be looked for in the majority of the institutions that are devoting themselves to-day to the study of international affairs, for they are conducted on a national basis and are for the most part connected with academic institutions of the traditional type. It is, in fact, not in the haunts of learning at all, but in the places

where actual political activity is being carried on that such a technique is most likely to have been developed. For the needs of the post-war world have brought into existence new types of governmental activity, in which experts have become regularly associated with statesmen of the older type ; and it is natural to ask whether this form of collaboration between science and action in public affairs cannot be used so as to revivify the methods of political education.

A striking example of these new educational possibilities can be found in the working of some of the organs of the League of Nations itself. No one can attend the Assembly of the League and its Committees, year by year, without being struck by the way in which each Commission, in virtue of its special subject or group of subjects, has taken on a character of its own, amounting in some cases to a very general *esprit de corps*. This is particularly marked in the First or Legal Committee, and the reason for this is very simple. The Committee is composed almost exclusively of jurists, including, in fact, some of the most eminent international lawyers in the world. But they are jurists not engaged simply, as at a university or a congress, in exercising their minds upon theoretical problems arising out of their specialism ; they are also statesmen, delegates of Governments, applying their legal knowledge, acumen and experience to practical issues. The result is a unique combination of specialism, developed to the highest degree, with practical statesmanship, exhibited in an international society with all that that implies of authority, dignity and largeness of view. Thus the Committee Room of the First Committee of the League of Nations Assembly has become the best seminar of international law in the world. No law school could hope to supply for the benefit of its students addresses by specialists equal to those to which the public (if it can find chairs enough) can listen during the second and third weeks of the Assembly. No discussion between professor and students can equal the interest of these debates in which the ball is kept rolling, to the obvious delight of the trained players, between the statesmen-lawyers, many of whom have now been engaged in the team for the best part of ten years. Unfortunately, the records of these discussions, as of those in the Athenian market-place, have been very imperfectly preserved ; no official Minutes could possibly do justice to them. Still less could a secretary hope to convey the inimitable wisdom, grace, wit and pungency of M. Scialoja, who has generally been in the chair.

The same technique has been developed, though not in so high a degree, in other League organs in which specialists have regularly come together for the discussion of problems arising out of their studies. Many of these, no doubt for sufficient reasons, have been closed to the public. But what a seminar, for instance, would have been available for students of economics if they could have listened to the discussions in which the Financial Committee worked out the technical conditions for the reconstruction of certain countries or to the debates in the Economic Committee between the partisans and the critics of the unconditional use of the most-favoured-nation system. The same applies to some of their special expert conferences, such as those on the fluctuations in the value of gold or the organisation of the coal industry. Equally instructive, no doubt, would be the meetings of the Mandates Commission, which, year by year, is working out, face to face with the men who bear the responsibility of government, new rules and principles of colonial administration.

If this technique can be developed in the working of an actual political organism, is there no way by which it can be transferred to the field of education pure and simple ? Cannot something approaching to the seminars afforded by the First Committee of the Assembly, the Economic and Financial Organisation and the Mandates Commission be adapted to the conditions of a non-official gathering and to the needs of a body of University or post-University students ? Should it not be possible to make this combination of specialisation and living experience available to the younger generation ? Is not this the very kind of education which it needs in order to help it to learn how to form sound judgments and to acquire a sense of the responsibility involved in framing political opinions ?

This would seem, in fact, to be the conception underlying a number of educational experiments which have been developed during the last few years. This is not the place to describe any of these in detail, since it is best to leave this task in each case to those who are familiar with the work carried on. But there are certain common features in regard to them which may be noted by way of introduction to such a series of individual descriptions.

Firstly, it is to be observed that the international political Congress, in the form in which it existed before the war, seems to be falling more and more into desuetude. The pre-war

conception of a political Congress was based on the analogy of a mass meeting for the promotion of a national "cause"; the fact that the cause was international and not national was an added reason for the prevalence of excitement and intellectual confusion at such gatherings. Yet meetings of this character were the usual means for the public discussion on international issues in the pre-war world. To-day, it is noticeable that many of the non-official bodies have adopted changes in technique and organisation analogous to those in use in the League of Nations. There is the same effort to break up the problem under consideration into its constituent elements, to refer these to separate Committees, to arrange for a satisfactory discussion by a careful selection of the Chairman and the Rapporteur — in a word, to ensure that intelligence and a sense of responsibility maintain their control over passion and rhetoric. By these means it has been discovered that practical results can be arrived at, in the form either of agreed resolutions or, what is often still more valuable, informal understandings based upon genuine mutual comprehension.

Secondly, there has been a development, side by side with the older Congresses based on common doctrines or opinions, of Congresses organised for the purpose, not of bringing together a body of partisans from different countries, but, on the contrary, of confronting the most varied and often conflicting attitudes and opinions. Meetings of this kind are, in the truest sense, gatherings of students; but the student body thus assembled tends more and more to consist of grown men and women active in the practical affairs of their respective countries and even of prominent public men in various walks of life. Thus an ex-Lord Chancellor of Great Britain has recently made the journey to Japan to attend the Conference of the Institute of Pacific Relations at Kyoto.

Thirdly, it seems to be agreed that, in meetings of this kind, once the right atmosphere has been created, differences of opinion, so far from being a cause of resentment, are actually welcomed. Speakers who, under normal circumstances, would hesitate, addressing an audience outside their own country, from treading on dangerous ground, have been surprised to discover how frankly and openly controversial problems can be discussed. The reason for this is simple. When a subject is described as a delicate problem, it is because it excites particular interest. On the lower level, such interest finds its outlet in passionate feeling. But once the plane of discussion has been

lifted into the realm of science, where emotion is strictly controlled, its interest remains and takes on an intellectual form. Thus, representatives of countries involved in controversy, instead of avoiding one another, are inclined to seek one another out in order to analyse and comprehend their differences. In this way there can be brought together not only the materials but sometimes also the personnel for effecting a political settlement.

It is clear that this technique, whether in the form of a Congress assimilated to a University lecture-room or of a University lecture-room assimilated to a League of Nations Committee, opens up large possibilities for educational progress. It may, indeed, in time develop into a system, and give rise to institutions of various kinds, bearing, *mutatis mutandis*, the same relationship to university studies as Adult Education has within the last twenty years come to bear, in some countries, to the primary system. That it will be increasingly utilised by young men destined for diplomatic and political careers may safely be prophesied ; but it would be a mistake to regard it as a mere professional training for activities in which a trained international sense is continually needed. The new approach to politics which it inculcates, an approach at once scientific and in close relationship to life itself, should not be the privilege of the few or confined to particular professions, but should more and more come to be regarded as the normal possession and attitude of all those in the community who are called upon to exercise responsibility. How far and by what means that circle can be widened is one of the cardinal problems of present-day government.

PART II.

How to make the League of Nations known and to develop a Spirit of International Co-operation.

REPORTS FROM INDIVIDUAL COUNTRIES.

BELGIUM

From the first establishment of the League of Nations, the Belgian universities have drawn the attention of their students to its significance in the field of international relations.

Later, when the League Assembly approved the recommendations of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation that instruction should be given in schools of all types in the aims and achievements of the League, the Belgian Government adopted this suggestion and took the necessary steps to put it into practice.

As long ago as April 1925, it was able to report on a certain number of measures which it had adopted.[1] Other measures were taken later at various times for the same purpose, and these persevering efforts have produced tangible results, as the League Secretariat has had occasion to note, especially during the last few months.

It is not necessary to particularise these various measures in chronological order, but it may be useful to give a brief account of their tenor and of the results achieved by them.

The Belgian Government has decreed that lessons on the League of Nations shall be given in secondary schools. It has accordingly published texts (syllabuses and synopses of lessons) containing sufficient information to enable teachers to give these lessons.

It has also prescribed that the school text-books on contemporary history and Belgian history used should include chapters explaining the organisation and work of the League. It has also expressed the wish that text-books which are not in accordance with League ideals should be discarded, and has recommended that as large a number as possible of the books awarded as school prizes shall consist of works which, "by the objective study of ideas and facts, instruct the students both in the obligations of patriotism and the duties of international morality".

The Belgian Government has issued instructions that lectures on the League of Nations shall be given in the primary schools from time to time.

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[1] See League document A.10.1925.XII.

Special mention should also be made of what has been done in Belgium to keep the teaching staff informed as to the organisation and work of the League. In this connection, synopses and syllabuses of lessons have been published by order of the Government, as mentioned above. In addition, secondary schools as well as teachers' training colleges, both primary and intermediate, have been provided with material concerning the League of Nations, including several of the pamphlets published by the Information Section of the Secretariat and the *Monthly Summary* of the League's work. More recently, the Belgian Ministry of Science and Arts, which has control over public education, decreed that one of the four annual cantonal educational conferences should be devoted to the League of Nations. These conferences give school inspectors the opportunity of asking the teachers to take up certain stated subjects and to prepare lessons on them, thus raising the level of teaching in this domain. They enable the inspectors to ascertain whether the teachers have the requisite knowledge of their subjects and afford an opportunity for the teachers to prove their worth and thus to qualify for advancement and promotion.

The decision to devote an educational conference to the subject of the League of Nations has produced considerable emulation among the Belgian teachers, and is a happy augury for the success of the efforts made in Belgium to instruct pupils, both in secondary and primary schools, in the work and aims of the League.

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It should be pointed out, however, that the full effect of the action taken by the Government authorities has apparently been confined to educational establishments under State control. Education in Belgium is, however, also given by other institutions, mainly by the Catholic schools. In their case, Government action, although not altogether inoperative, is more or less limited. Nevertheless, there are certain indications which lead us to assume that Belgian schools not controlled by the State are also instructing their pupils in the aims and work of the League and that they are endeavouring to carry out the recommendations of the League Assembly. The available information in this connection is, however, less definite.

Finally, we would mention the action taken by the Belgian League of Nations Union in accordance with the views of the

International Federation of League of Nations Associations. This Union has organised competitive examinations in secondary schools on the work of the League. The examination held in 1928, in connection with the award of travelling scholarships to Geneva, proved highly successful. This year the results were even more satisfactory, and have shown that there is a real desire on the part of young students who intend to enter the teaching profession to acquaint themselves with the work of international organisation. The fact that a large amount of space is given in Belgian educational reviews to information and articles communicated periodically by the League Secretariat, proves that this desire is shared by the teachers themselves.

CANADA.

The Quickening of Canadian Interest in International Affairs.

It is not surprising that, in pre-war days, interest in world politics was confined to comparatively small groups in Canada. As a pioneer people, still in the extractive stage of national economy, Canadians were inevitably engrossed in such pressing domestic problems as railways and the assimilation of immigrants. The French-Canadian, whom three centuries had rooted deeply in the soil of his beloved province, was even more aloof from the wider world than his English-speaking compatriot. His idol, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, well expressed the habitants inarticulate dread of entanglements when he expressly refrained from accepting a share of responsibility for British commitments in international affairs lest Canada should be drawn into "the vortex of European militarism". However, it is as well to remember that, in general, the British Government was as unprepared to offer Canada an adequate voice in foreign relations as Canada was unready to accept it.

In our schools and colleges, those portions of history selected for study dealt chiefly with the civilisation of Greece and Rome, the history of Great Britain and of Canada. Naturally, European history received considerable attention in our universities, but even there (as was probably the case in more than one country) a student was liable to be far better informed about Luther than about Bismark, or to be better acquainted with Richelieu than with Napoleon III. The majority of our graduate students, especially in English, economics and science, gravitated to the United States to continue their researches, where they received a warm welcome and often permanently ensconced themselves. James Shotwell, Jacob Schurman, Isaiah Bowman, Wiliam Osler and W. B. Munro are among the many Canadian scholars who have left their impress upon American scholarship and life.

A small band of graduates did venture across the Atlantic, some going to Germany for light in philosophy and science, others, chiefly from Quebec, directing their steps to the halls of the Sorbonne. The Rhodes Scholarships ensured a group of nine students at least proceeding annually to Oxford for three years of study. As these returned, many entered university

teaching, especially in classics and history, and strengthened the connection with English universities and the interest in Europe.

The world war inevitably hastened our economic, political and intellectual development. Canadian manufactures expanded under the kindly rays of war contracts, and in the post-war period fought with considerable success to keep their place in the sun. The Canadian farmer discovered that he was a world producer, whose influence on the price of wheat steadily expanded with the gradual withdrawal of his American competitor from export markets. Through pressure of adversity, necessity, ever the mother of invention, drove him on the prairies to build up the Wheat Pool as a co-operative enterprise which is now the largest single business in Canada. It is teaching its members to study world conditions from the angle of crops and prices. In the same fashion, Canadian mines and forests are becoming of international importance and influencing the outlook of their owners. In the realm of politics, our statesmen were compelled to study Imperial and international problems, because of the new recognition of Canada as an international entity that had been won by the sacrifices of our soldiers and the wisdom of our war-time Prime Minister, Sir Robert Borden. The thousands of young veterans who returned to resume their studies or professional careers, with a dearly bought practical experience of what part of Europe was like, assisted in stimulating the new interest in international relations that soon made itself felt. This interest found reflection in education, in new organisations and in the Press.

Under the Canadian federal system of government, education is a provincial matter, and it is therefore necessary to examine the policies of the nine provinces. If we take interest in the League of Nations as an indication of the new order, we can report grounds for optimism. According to a survey made in 1928 by the League of Nations Society in Canada, seven of the provinces make the League an object of study in their schools, some in the secondary schools, some in both elementary and secondary schools. The two other provinces provide facilities for instructing the teacher and leave the use of his knowledge to his discretion. A valuable medium of information of League matters is a pamphlet prepared by educational experts for the League of Nations Society entitled "A New World or The League of Nations". Since its publication, 25,000 copies have been distributed, chiefly among teachers and students. In

Nova Scotia, each high-school student receives a copy from the Education Department. Manitoba requires every student in the second grade of high school to read it. British Columbia presents a copy to every student in the junior matriculation grade,[1] to every teacher of history in the high schools and to every teacher in the senior grades of public school. British Columbia has also created a valuable precedent in making the League of Nations the subject of an obligatory question upon the junior matriculation examination in history. In June 1929, some 2,100 students were required to answer the following question, to which was assigned one quarter of the value of the paper :

> " Account for the creation of the League of Nations. Do you think it has justified its existence ? Give reasons for your answer. "

The text-books used in the history curricula of Canadian high schools also reflect a wider appreciation of what F. S. Marvin has termed "The Unity of Western Civilisation". Three provinces, for example, use a text-book entitled " World Progress ", written by an American scholar and revised for use in Canada by Dr. Mack Eastman, now attached to the International Labour Office. The newer histories of Great Britain and Canada used in the elementary schools and junior high schools contain special sections on Canada's relation to the League of Nations and to the British Commonwealth of Nations.

The Universities show a similar expansion of interest. We still lack in them special Chairs of International Relations, but far greater stress is now laid in the upper years upon courses in Comparative Government, International Law and Modern European History. "Survey courses" of European history from the close of the Middle Ages to the present day are increasingly common for first–and second–year students, and in these the League is naturally discussed. Students attempting an Honours Degree are occasionally offered special seminar courses upon the problems created by the world war or are allowed to write essays upon them. The support given to the League of Nations Society by University professors from coast to coast has been of considerable value. Among the students, an increasing interest in the League and in world affairs was stimulated by the lectures of Sir Herbert Ames, for seven years

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[1] The Junior Matriculation examination admits students to the first year of the University.

Treasurer of the League, who addressed the students of every Canadian university. In the last two years two student " Model Assemblies " have been held. At Ottawa, in June 1928, students from the central Canadian Universities held such an Assembly, while the students of the five maritime Universities undertook with marked success a similar project in March 1929.

Direct contact with Europe has greatly increased with the encouragement afforded by special student and teacher tours which our steamship companies have offered in imitation of their American rivals. Although, as in the past, the majority of our graduate students still proceed to the United States, the number proceeding overseas has increased, this increase being assisted by a number of new scholarships created since the war. No accurate figures are available as to the comparative numbers, but the ratio in favour of the United States would be at least six to one. Of those who do go abroad, the majority naturally study in Britain, where language is not a handicap and where many have relatives. Oxford and London are the most favoured, and the chief subjects studied are law, medicine, history and science. Through the generous co-operation of the French Government in offering scholarships, the flow of students to Paris has markedly increased. A wealthy citizen of Montreal was largely responsible for the Canadian hostel in the new area for national student residences that the French Government has created. Our Minister to France, the Hon. Philippe Roy, has stated that approximately two hundred Canadian students are now in Paris in the various faculties. Of these, at least half will be from the Province of Quebec. Germany, until very recently, has attracted fewer students than in the past, but the number is gradually increasing.

In educating the general public, one of the greatest factors has been the League of Nations Society in Canada, to which reference has already been made. Led successively by Sir Robert Borden, Sir George Foster and Dr. H. M. Tory, President of the National Research Council, it has patiently laboured to spread the gospel of international co-operation and world peace. Its growth has been very gradual, even now it has barely 20,000 members in a population of almost ten millions, but its influence has been effectively exerted in the circles where public opinion is formed. It has been endorsed by the leaders of our political parties, has received valuable support from the Governor-General, Lord Willingdon, and has the co-operation of several influential national organisations. A newer society of

importance is the Canadian Institute of International Affairs, of which Sir Robert Borden is the first President. It is affiliated to the Royal Institute of International Affairs and is endeavouring to build up a chain of picked groups in the chief Canadian cities, which will seriously study international affairs and which will offer a small informed audience for distinguished visitors to Canada, who should welcome a respite from the strain of uttering only public platitudes. The Canadian Institute is especially interested in the Pacific, since many of its charter members originally belonged to the Institute of Pacific Relations.

The keener interest in academic and political circles in contemporary politics has had its effect upon the field of historical writing and has won recognition abroad. In the past ten years statesmen and scholars have produced volumes with the following significant titles : " Canada and World Politics ", " The British Empire and World Peace ", " Canada in the Commonwealth ", " Empire and Commonwealth ". Canadians have been invited to lead discussions in the United States on international affairs at the Williamstown Institute of Politics, at Chicago, in the Harris Foundation lectures, where J. W. Dafoe, the distinguished editor of the *Manitoba Free Press*, made a valuable contribution, and at similar gatherings. More than once, a Canadian has been invited to address the Royal Institute of International Affairs. From the outset, Canadians have been present at the successive meetings of the Institute of Pacific Relations at Honolulu and elsewhere.

The Press of Canada deserves honourable mention for the public spirit it has shown. Almost without exception it is friendly to the League and has devoted generous space to League news, especially since the election of Canada to the Council and the visit to Geneva of the Canadian Prime Minister. The average Canadian paper devotes much more space to foreign politics than does its American counterpart. We have no paper of national influence or circulation because of the handicaps of space and time. Thus we lack the equivalent of *The Times* of London or *New York Times* to set a standard in journalism. But, on the other hand, we have no Hearst Press or Rothermere Press.

As the Canadian public has become more alive to world politics, the Canadian Parliament has devoted more time to debates on imperial and international questions, though there is great room for improvement. In the Senate, Sir George Foster and Senator Dandurand have done much to stimulate discussion.

The recent debates in the House of Commons upon the ratification of the Peace Pact of Paris set a new standard of debating and interest. The practice of sending in rotation members of the Cabinet to Geneva has proved a valuable one in making friends for the League. The Department of External Affairs, which is attached to the office of the Prime Minister, is steadily expanding its personnel, as it is required to meet the needs of the Legations and Offices in London, Geneva, Paris, Washington and Tokio. When, last summer, competitive examinations were held for two vacancies, there were some seventy candidates.

It would be folly to claim that the people of Canada have a constant active interest in international questions. The 4,000 miles of sundering seas which separate us from Europe and from Asia are a mighty barrier psychologically as well as physically. But the memory of our 60,000 war dead has left among the Canadian people a sober determination to do their part in building a new world order. Of the measure of our success it is for Geneva to judge.

Professor F. H. Soward, B. Litt.
Department of History,
University of British Columbia.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS TEACHING IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA.

The idea of the League of Nations and the pacifist movement as a whole were certain to fall on very fertile soil in Czechoslovakia, since they are entirely in harmony with the deep-rooted tendencies that have moulded the whole history of the Czechoslovak nation. If we cast a glance over the principal events in that history, we shall see that, although the Czechoslovak nation frequently became involved in sanguinary conflicts, its participation was never due to any idea of domination or conquest, but only to the desire to defend its national heritage and to serve the great humanitarian movements that have swept through the world. President Masaryk, who is also the greatest Czech philosopher of the pre-war generation, who has thought much upon the past and the destinies of his nation, arrives at this conclusion :

> " Obedience to the spirit of humanity, which has nothing in common with harsh national egotism, but elevates and purifies the sense of nationality by emphasising the common interests of mankind — that is the trend of Czechoslovak history, and that should always be the ideal of the Czech people."

A few examples will suffice to illustrate President Masaryk's words. It was in that spirit that the great King of Bohemia, George of Podiebrad, conceived, between 1460 and 1464, a scheme for ensuring perpetual peace in Christendom by a great union of princes, which was to settle disputes among the nations of Europe by arbitration organised on a firm basis. One of the finest figures in the Hussite movement was Peter Chelcicky, founder of the Czech Brotherhood, which, as early as the fifteenth century, opposed any form of government by violence, advancing arguments similar to those more recently employed by Tolstoi. One of the last bishops of this Czech Brotherhood, John Amos Comenius, the great teacher and savant, always asserted that the normal condition of mankind was not one of fratricidal strife, but of systematically organised peace, founded upon treaties and upon a high moral level of culture.

Even before the war, therefore, the pacifist ideal found excellent material to work upon among the Czechs ; it was

already deeply rooted in the public mind, although the external organisation of pacifist movements met with certain obstacles. The first attempts at such organisation were made in Moravia between 1896 and 1899 ; two pacifist societies were formed, but their life was short. In Bohemia, the peace movement met with a very favourable reception among the teachers, who had also shown the greatest enthusiasm in adopting Masaryk's humanitarian ideals. A pacifist section was formed in 1909 in the Komensky Teachers' Society at Prague. At about the same time, at Bystrice pod Hostynem, in Moravia, a number of teachers reached a like decision and formed a pacifist society. Certain feminist organisations were also quick to show their interest in this movement. Between 1912 and 1914, two more pacifist societies were formed at Brno and Prague — the " Peace Union " and the " Chelcicky Peace Society ", which carry on active campaign by giving lectures and publishing collections of peace literature for adults and children.

The great war enabled the Czech people to achieve their national aspirations by establishing a free and independent State. The intellectual heads of the national movement which was launched during the war always stated that the struggle of the Czechs for their political independence should be regarded as only a single chapter in the great fight for the new democratic Europe. In their view, independent Czechoslovakia should become a member of the new European community, which Mazzini had once dreamed of. In that community, nationalism was not to be reduced to a selfish struggle of all against all ; it was to develop into human solidarity — equality between all nations, great and small. This theory was entirely in harmony with the principles proclaimed by Wilson in his messages, which were subsequently — to some extent at least — put into practice in the Covenant of the League of Nations.

Accordingly, in the new Czechoslovak Republic, founded on October 28th, 1918, at the close of the world war, the foundation of the League was received with keen interest and general enthusiasm. The public also unanimously rejoiced that M. E. Beneš, the Minister for Foreign Affairs and Masaryk's principal helper in establishing the new republic, was, as representative of our country in international affairs, devoting his best efforts to the League's success, and especially to the consolidation of world peace. Even in Czechoslovakia, however, there are sceptics who criticise the work at Geneva ; but their scepticism has been and still is, in our country, entirely

free from bitterness or spite. They are content to express frankly their fear that the League may not be strong enough to overcome the many obstacles that have accumulated in its path, and they all hope sincerely that it will find the strength it needs.

As regards home politics in the Czechoslovak Republic, there is, as in all other countries, a wide variety of views as to the proper function of the State ; the chief problem that arises in this field is that of the relations between the Czechoslovak people and the national minorities speaking languages other than Czech. All Czechs agree, however, that no injustice must be allowed to impair the moral foundation of these relations. The great majority of the Czech people is behind President Masaryk when, in his messages and speeches, he continually asserts that the Czechoslovak army exists only for national defence and not for any offensive purpose. His words are enthusiastically echoed when he proclaims that, in these days, it is no special virtue, but the duty of everyone to work for the establishment of a lasting peace. A republic such as ours, comparatively small, situated in the centre of Europe, and having long frontiers which could not easily be defended by arms, must, after all, look with particular gratitude upon the birth of a new organisation of mankind founded, not upon the sword, but upon international agreements made in mutual respect and good faith.

No serious obstacles, therefore, are encountered in our country in spreading the knowledge of the principles and aims of the League. If this work is not always attended by any great external ceremony, the main reason is that, as a general rule, educated Czechs are naturally in favour of the League, and any kind of noisy propaganda is quite needless.

None the less, efforts are made in various ways to inform not merely intellectual circles but the public as a whole of the aims and development of the Geneva institutions. The principal agency is the school ; we refer more particularly to the teaching of history and civics in the higher elementary schools, which include a large number of children of the working class. In the syllabus of civic teaching laid down in 1923 for the third-year class in the higher elementary schools, it is specifically stated that the teacher is to explain to the children the nature of the League of Nations and the peace movement. In view of the exceptional importance of the subject, another channel for imparting information has been provided, in addition to the ordinary teaching. An Order of the Ministry of Education, dated March 6th, 1926, instituted the " peace half-hour " in all

communal schools, higher elementary, secondary and occupational schools (including apprenticeship classes). This means that on March 28th, the anniversary of the birth of Comenius, the great teacher and apostle of peace, half an hour is to be spent in teaching the children about the peace movement among civilised nations.

The actual words introducing this decision in the Ministerial Order are these :

" The great war aroused among all civilised peoples strong aspirations for universal peace. The peace movement, headed by President Wilson, gave birth to the League of Nations. The League is intended to act as intermediary between civilised countries, so as to reduce the risk of war to a minimum and to establish peace on durable foundations. Following the League's ideals, a number of institutions in every civilised country are seeking to awaken the interest of the general public in the peace movement. In our country, too, these efforts deserve full support, and for this we have to rely upon the educational influence of the schools. "

Again, with reference to this teaching :

" The actual subject is left to the teacher; but, in tracing the history of the peace movement and talking about the League of Nations, he must not forget to mention the efforts for peace which run throughout the history of the Czechoslovak nation and State. In particular, the teacher should speak to the pupils, in a manner suitable to their age, of the noble ideal of John Amos Comenius, whose memory is bound up with the ' peace half-hour ', and of the best means of ensuring perpetual world peace by raising the general level of culture and education. Supervisors of teaching should see that the ' peace half-hour ' contributes, together with other methods, to the humanitarian education of the young. "

Most teachers, being, as we observed above, wholeheartedly devoted to the idea of democratic progress, welcomed this innovation, and many of them even proposed that another " peace half-hour " should be instituted on November 15th to commemorate both the death of Comenius and the first Assembly of the League of Nations at Geneva.

Efforts have also been made to furnish teachers with sufficient information to enable them to explain the peace movement and the League of Nations. With this object, the

Political Science Society, to which we shall refer later, has published several popular pamphlets, such as those by Professor Jaroslav Kallab on " The League of Nations ", which appeared in 1920 and 1921, and by Č. Syrový on "The Covenant of the League of Nations ". The subsequent development of the League has been very well outlined in simple language in Mme. Jindřiška Wurmová's pamphlet, "The League of Nations for the Young", published in 1927 and introduced by an eloquent preface by M. E. Beneš. The walls of many national schools are adorned with a table of the "Ten Commandments of Peace" published by the Peace Union, whose members also organise lectures on peace in the schools. The Union supplies them with material for a small travelling exhibition entitled "From War to Peace", and a collection of diagrams and tables based on documents obtained from Geneva and translated into Czech. This peace movement in schools is strongly supported by the Czech Red Cross, which groups the school-children in numerous sections, employing them chiefly in preparing for its annual celebration, "Truce of God," – the name given to the national peace festival of the Red Cross held throughout Czechoslovakia every year after Easter.

The instruction given to secondary-school children as to the nature and work of the League is naturally often more advanced than that given in the higher elementary schools, and provision is made accordingly in the syllabuses for history and civics ; the education authorities are responsible for the observance of these regulations. The Ministerial Order of July 3rd, 1928, on the rewriting of secondary-school textbooks, says in particular :

> "School books must encourage national and religious toleration, develop the spirit of peace, inspire respect for international treaties, and emphasise the spiritual solidarity of all peoples ; in short, they should inculcate a true human spirit into the pupils."

Hitherto, there has been no suitable book in Czechoslovakia to provide teachers with general, but at the same time detailed, information for this purpose. The gap will soon be filled, as the Ministry of Education is shortly to publish and circulate widely a translation of " The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations ", with introduction and notes specially addressed to Czech readers. Secondary-school teachers are, moreover, very enthusiastic for the peace movement and its

extension through the schools. There was evidence of this at the International Congress on " Peace through the Schools " held at Prague in April 1927. The Proceedings of the Congress were published under the direction of M. P. Bovet, with the support of the Czechoslovak Ministry of Education.

As to higher education, there are, as yet, no general arrangements to provide students of all faculties and all subjects with information on the work of the League. These subjects are dealt with in detail, however, in the lectures and practical work of the Faculties of Law (international law courses and social and financial policy courses). They also appear in the curriculum of the Free School of Political Science founded recently in Prague, which is attended by many pupils and ex-pupils of the various faculties. A course of lectures is given there annually by M. A. Zimmermann on the post-war organisation of peace and the work of the League. The Social Institute of the Czechoslovak Republic at Prague was also attended by a large number of students in 1929, during the course of lectures on the League and its institutions (the lectures are to be printed). Those whose interest has thus been aroused can obtain still fuller knowledge of the League's work from various publications in Czech. These include the League's Monthly Summaries, based on the Geneva official documents and published in Czech, by Al. Hajn, and numerous articles on the League published by the Ministry for Foreign Affairs in the periodical *Zahranični politika* (Foreign Policy). Further, there are a considerable number of monographs in Czech dealing with League work, among which it will suffice to mention Jar. Koudelka's " The Geneva Protocol " (Prague, 1926).

The training of officers includes instruction on questions relating to the League and its aims. The third-year class at the Staff College has courses in international law every year, when the instructor not only deals with the organisation of the League in general, but also explains, in particular, why and how the League was formed, and describes in detail the organisation of the League and the International Labour Office. This instruction covers the draft Treaty of Mutual Assistance, the Geneva Protocol, the Locarno Conventions and the Kellogg Pact, which are also dealt with in courses given at the intendance school.

Among the institutions that have undertaken work for the League in Czechoslovakia on a large scale, mention should be made, in the first place, of the "Czechoslovak League of Nations

Union", founded in 1920 and affiliated to the Political Science Society. This organisation, whose president is Senator J. Brabec —also president of the Czechoslovak delegation to the Inter-parliamentary Union—has five sections in Czechoslovakia (including a German and a Jewish section), which work through lectures and through the Press. It has published numerous popular pamphlets, and keeps Czech readers regularly informed of developments in the field with which it deals through the "Review of the Czechoslovak League of Nations Union". Similar work is done in student circles by the Czechoslovak section of the "International University Federation for the League of Nations". Czech students played an active part in the foundation of this Federation, which took place in 1924 at the international assembly held at Prague, and this must be regarded as one of the reasons for their international outlook.

We should like also to refer very briefly to the work for international *rapprochement* in science and art. Its principal agent is the Section for Intellectual Relations with Foreign Countries in the Ministry of Education and National Culture. This section, directed by M. F. Spišek makes intelligent and active use of the considerable funds furnished annually by the budget for the maintenance of international intellectual relations. These chiefly take the form of exchanges of students and teachers, scholarships being granted to Czechoslovak and foreign students under agreements concluded by the Czechoslovak Government with other countries.

Relations are maintained most actively with France—not only because a considerable number of scholarships are granted by each country, but also through the efforts of such institutions as the Institute of Slavonic Studies at Paris, the Ernest Denis French Institute at Prague, the French kinder-garten, elementary school and secondary school at Prague, and the Czechoslovak sections in French secondary schools at Dijon, Nimes, St. Germain-en-Laye and Angoulême. The large libraries dealing with Bohemia at the Institute of Slavonic Studies and the National School of Living Oriental Languages at Paris (where there is a Chair of Czechoslovak language and a lectureship), on the one side, and the large French library of the French Institute at Prague on the other side, enable Czech and French intellectuals to familiarise themselves with the scientific and literary achievements of each other's countries.

The quintet of young Czechoslovak artistes organised on a permanent basis at the Institute of Slavonic Studies at

Paris endeavours to bring the two nations together in the field of art by performing the works of French and Czechoslovak composers. Furthermore, the Ernest Denis French Institute has recently established a new "Training Section" at Prague, in order to acquaint the public of each country with the work of the other country in education. There are numerous sections of the "Alliance française" and various other French clubs in Czechoslovakia ; in France there are several Societies of Friends of Czechoslovakia in Paris, Lille, Strasbourg and Lyons, while certain French families gladly correspond with pupils in the Czechoslovak sections at Nîmes and Dijon. International friendship has also found expression in the intellectual field through the establishment of a special committee for the restoration of the Louvain library, which has reconstituted the Czech section of the library.

The centre of intellectual relations between Czechoslovakia and Italy is the Institute of Italian Culture at Prague, which publishes its own *Review* ; there is also a Chair of Italian language and literature, occupied by an Italian professor, at the Charles University. In regard to the relations between Roumania and Czechoslovakia, there is the important Roumano-Czechoslovak Institute, and for relations with the Iberian Peninsula and the Latin-American countries, that of the Czechoslovak-Spanish-Latin-American Institute at Prague. A number of other associations exist to develop these intellectual relations : the Society of Friends of Czechoslovakia at Madrid ; the Society of Roumanian and Czechoslovak Students, under the patronage of Monsignor Zavoral, the Jan Orban Jarník Roumanian Society at Bucharest, and the King Michael Society of Roumanian students at Prague ; the Students Union of the Little Entente Countries at Paris. The Komenský Teachers' Union, which acts in conjunction with the International Bureau of Education at Geneva, the Czechoslovak Federation of Intellectual Workers, and several other international organisations (such as the Popular Theatre Committee, etc.) are working, each in its own sphere, to strengthen the friendly relations between the Czechoslovak and other peoples.

Relations with the Anglo-Saxon countries are developing in proportion to the growing importance of those countries in national, intellectual and economic life. The English language and the Anglo-American culture are spread in Czechoslovakia chiefly through the English Grammar School at Prague, which has elementary, secondary and commercial courses, a kinder-

garten, and special language courses. At Prague and in other towns there are also numerous clubs and private schools where English is taught and spoken. These clubs are associated in an Anglo-American Union, which holds a general assembly every year on the occasion of the Shakespeare Festival, and fixes its future programme. There is, further, the work done by several other English and American institutions, some of which are private associations like the Czech Society for Great Britain in London, and others official, like the School of Slavonic and East European Studies in London, the Institute of Czechoslovak Studies at Columbia University, New York, and the Institute of International Education at New York, which devotes special attention to exchanges of teachers and students between American higher educational institutions and Czechoslovakia. There is a constant exchange of scientific publications and communications in the intellectual and educational sphere between Czechoslovakia and nearly all the countries under British influence — Australia, India, Canada, etc.

In this connection, importance attaches to educational, artistic and scientific exhibitions, in which Czechoslovakia takes an active part and is able to show the results of her efforts.

Relations are also very active with the German and Baltic countries in every field of intellectual life. Exchanges of teachers and students, reciprocal grants of scholarships, exchanges of publications of all kinds, the organisation of exhibitions and tours for parties of students and teachers, and the exchange of information concerning educational and intellectual life, are all carried on with the help of the proper authorities.

After 1918, Czechoslovakia naturally endeavoured to strengthen the links between herself and all the Slav nations, which had few opportunities of knowing each other in pre-war days. These efforts have gone furthest in connection with Yugoslavia. A joint declaration has been drawn up by the Yugoslav and Czechoslovak Governments concerning intellectual and educational relations between the two countries. By this declaration, the two Governments undertake to encourage relations between their countries in every possible way : elementary, secondary, occupational, higher and popular education, the organisation of libraries, science, literature, art and the stage, assistance for students, etc. This co-operation is sometimes direct and sometimes through the institutions and other bodies best adapted to the purpose. It is hoped that co-operation on

similar lines will shortly be established with Poland, Bulgaria and Soviet Russia.

Much might also be said of the educational help given by Czechoslovakia to Russian emigrants—a matter with which the League of Nations is familiar. No kind of assistance could be more valuable to the Russian and Ukrainian emigrants than help in their intellectual life and the education of the younger generation. Many schools have been opened which, while retaining the Russian character and stamp, are organised, as regards their curriculum, on similar lines to the Czechoslovak schools, and thus represent an attempt at putting the Slav *rapprochement* into practice.

The Section for Intellectual Relations with Foreign Countries, at the Ministry of Education, also devotes part of its considerable funds to the organisation of periodical lectures by foreign authorities at Czechoslovak higher educational establishments ; it provides readers in Czech for scientific institutions abroad, such as the School of Slavonic Studies at London University ; it gives Czech books and publications to these schools ; it helps in the preparations for international congresses held in Czechoslovakia, and gives Czech scientists opportunities of going abroad ; it superintends the teaching of foreign languages in the Czechoslovak secondary schools, and encourages the development of international inter-school correspondence, and so forth.

Lastly, mention must be made of the Foreign Studies Information Office, organised with the support of the Ministry of Education and working in connection with the General Association of Czechoslovak Students, which is a highly active member of the International Confederation of Students and has done much to bring Czechoslovak students into contact with those of other countries. A similar aim is pursued by other organisations, such as the Czechoslovak Section of the Federation of University Women, the Czechoslovak groups of the Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., the Boy Scout Associations, and a number of other societies which space forbids us to enumerate and describe in detail.

To sum up, we may say that the attempt to establish friendly relations with foreign countries, and the effort to overcome such natural or historical obstacles as may stand in its way by enlarging the mutual knowledge of peoples, have found strong support in Czechoslovakia. On this point the position of the intellectual classes in Czechoslovakia is somewhat

difficult; standing, as they do, on the boundary between the Slav and Germanic worlds, they have to look both east and west. This sometimes results — as in the case of the knowledge of foreign languages—in a certain dispersal of effort, which is not always calculated to lead to complete success. It is to be hoped, however, that, in course of time, we shall see the disappearance of many obstacles that now remain as a heritage from the difficult post-war period.

Josef Šusta.

GREAT BRITAIN

The publication in England of the " Report of the Joint Committee of Enquiry into the Teaching of the Aims and Achievements of the League of Nations " marks the culmination of all that has been done in this country since the problem was first discussed by the fourth Assembly of the League in 1923. It is notable because it indicates that the Local Education Authorities and the organisations of teachers are in complete agreement with the Board of Education on the wisdom of utilising the schools and the various subjects of the curriculum to ensure that the next generation of British citizens has a new outlook on world affairs.

Since the world war of 1914-1918, we live in the shadow of a fear that a catastrophe may come and throw back the human race into barbarism, destroying the very fabric of human civilisation. Looking back at the last war and studying the events which led up to its outbreak we see how humanly preventable it was and we are bound to recognise that if a future world-war is to be prevented it will mean both thought and effort and the sacrifice of some dear prejudices. There is increasing evidence that the teachers of the world are throwing their weight into the movement for the prevention of future wars, and by encouraging the young, with whom the future rests, to understand their duties and their opportunities in the new international system, to hasten the day when the League shall be " an intelligible reality ". It is no exaggeration to say that by far the greatest issue before the peoples of the world is the problem of universal and perpetual peace. Reduction and limitation of armaments are under frequent discussion ; plans for the total or partial abolition of armies, navies and air fleets, are being produced, only to be met with devastating criticism and early demise. We recognise that the general acceptance of machinery for the settlement of international disputes without recourse to war must inevitably be a slow process. If the will is there, if public opinion is solidly behind the peacemakers, the machinery will inevitably fulfil its purpose. But, perhaps, it is more clear to teachers that those who have suffered the clash of arms to a greater degree than any other generation must find the solution of this problem before it is too late. For a new generation is arising, from whom the

glamour and romance of war may hide its ugliness and the terror and ruin it brings in its train. So, individually and collectively, the teacher is working to bring nearer the day when the schools will become still stronger agencies making for the peace of the world.

The content of the school syllabuses in England and the methods of presenting the subject are happily matters for determination by the teachers in the schools themselves. The Board of Education, however, issues from time to time a volume of " Suggestions " to teachers which are closely studied and which have a profound effect upon school practice, particularly so far as elementary schools are concerned. Between 1923 and 1927 many local education authorities had encouraged their teachers to give instruction about the League to their older pupils, but it was not until the latter date that the Board of Education set the seal of its approval upon this instruction. In that part of the volume devoted to history, a plea was included to make British history part of world history, and teachers were urged to take the general history concurrently with our own in such a way as to make it more intelligible and interesting. The " Suggestions " continued :

> " If a teacher brings to his work this broad conception of the treatment of the history of Great Britain and the British Commonwealth of Nations, dwelling not less upon the points of contact between nations than upon the differences which have separated them, he will naturally wish that the children should learn something of the League of Nations and of the ideals for which it stands. In most cases, opportunity will offer, not only in the history lessons but at other times, for drawing attention to that form of international co-operation which the League represents. It may be pointed out that, in the modern industrial world, the increased communication between nations owing to improved methods of transport, the economic inter-dependence of nations upon one another and, above all, the vast scale and terrible machinery of modern warfare, have made it necessary that the peoples of the world should combine with their natural sense of local patriotism a conception of their common interests and duties."

A notable service to teachers was rendered by the Board, who printed as an appendix to the " Suggestions " an account

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of the League of Nations which dealt admirably with its historical background and also described the terms of the Covenant and the machinery by which it works. The main tendencies which have to be traced through the confused history of four centuries were stated to be the development of stable national units ; international diplomacy and agreements ; and a system of international law. Thus the League was to be given its proper historical setting and significance. Thus every primary school in Great Britain was supplied with useful information in a handy form as a basis for teaching about this subject.

It was in the same year (1927) that the President of the Board of Education convened a Conference of representatives of local education authorities in pursuance of the undertaking given on behalf of the Government at the seventh Assembly in 1926. This Conference was extended by the invitation of representatives from Scotland and Northern Ireland, but the suggestion of the League's Sub-Committee of Experts that teachers should also be present was not acted upon. A statement of the proceedings was subsequently issued from which the following may be quoted :

The President of the Board of Education said :

" The events of the last thirteen years had shaken and changed the whole civilised world. If, in educating men, we aimed in any degree at explaining to them the past and preparing them for the future, we could not ignore those events. To many of our fellow countrymen the institution of the League of Nations had become in some measure the symbol and focus of these changes. Our education must take account of it and it was clearly desirable that the account we took of it should be a deliberate one.

" The error to which men were perhaps most prone, and which any education worthy of the name should seek to counteract, had been the tendency to substitute the symbol for the substance, the institution for the policy, the means for the end. In the domain of public morals the thing we wished to train children to understand and desire was peace. Many human institutions, national and international, had been formed to secure peace. Of the international ones, the League of Nations was the latest and the most comprehensive ; and there was real educational value in any teaching which traced through history this story of continuous human endeavour to reconcile conflicting interests

to overcome misunderstandings, and to bring the nations together in practical co-operation in common tasks. But the League remained a human institution to be used with the same discretion and judged by the same standards, as it would assuredly be subjected to the same strains and liable to the same errors, as any human institution of the past. It was neither a new moral revelation nor an infallible authority : it was an instrument to be used by the peoples of the world in the cause of peace, and if it was to be rightly used it must first be understood.

" Even where the League itself did not find an actual place in school teaching it could not be absent from the mind of any intelligent teacher, and his view of it could hardly fail in some degree to influence his teaching. He suggested, therefore, that it was in relation to training colleges that we should principally consider this problem, and that it was the students at such colleges who most needed opportunities for acquiring a sound knowledge and a balanced view of the origins and work of the League. In this, as in all similar matters, our teaching methods could only be worked out by teachers themselves in the actual course of their work, and the surest way to solve such problems was to give the members of the teaching profession that background of thought and knowledge which would alone enable them to judge what and how to teach. "

In the meantime the teachers' associations had been actively co-operating through the Education Committee of the League of Nations Union, and had published their well-known "Declaration on the Schools of Britain and the Peace of the World ". This document draws upon the combined experience of teachers in various types of schools and colleges, and it indicates the methods by which instruction in the League can be, and is being, carried out in the schools.

Some account of the other steps taken to carry out the recommendations of the experts' report (document A.26.1927.) ought also to be given, so that a proper appreciation of the national position may be formed. By co-operation with the teachers' organisations and the local education authorities and the League of Nations Union speakers have been arranged for several hundred meetings of teachers. At most of these meetings addresses were given on the work of the League ; others took the form of Conferences at which methods of teaching were

discussed. At the Annual Conferences of teachers' organisations there have been discussions on the teaching of League principles in the schools. Summer schools, which are attended by large numbers of teachers, are arranged annually at Geneva, and either at Oxford or Cambridge. Many local education authorities have issued circulars on the League to their teachers or have arranged for lectures, film displays, and for the supply of books and pamphlets. At the same time arrangements are made for competent speakers to address school meetings. Many local education authorities arrange for their senior children to be grouped to hear addresses on this subject, out of school buildings and during school hours. Information about the League and international affairs generally are also broadcast to the schools.

The League of Nations Union now has over six hundred junior or school branches, formed in all types of schools, which form one of the most valuable means of stimulating the pupils' interest in the League. Their activities include holding model assemblies, pageants, debates, lectures and stimulating interchange of correspondence with pupils abroad. Literature and lecturers are supplied and the movement is extended to such organisations as Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, the Boys' Life Brigade, and Young Peoples' Guild and Clubs.

The League of Nations Union prepares and distributes widely varied and appropriate literature for teachers. Over twenty thousand copies of " Teachers and World Peace " have been distributed and a booklet called " The Study and Teaching of International Relations " is in constant demand. " League News ", a leaflet for children, has a circulation of thirty thousand copies, and the story of the League told for children and entitled " The Wonderful League " is now in its fourth edition. There is also available a large collection of lantern slides, and two educational films. The Union has spent over £1,000 on the preparation of these experimental films which have been shown to hundreds of thousands of children and provide a nucleus of interest in the League, thereby enabling teachers more easily to give their pupils a series of suitable lessons on the League.

In the universities and colleges much work is being done through the British Universities League of Nations Society. The approximate membership in Cambridge is one thousand, in Oxford, six hundred ; in London, six hundred. Its organisation and work are purely educational and its aims are to promote international understanding, to study world relations, and to make known the terms of the Covenant of the League.

Among other activities of the League of Nations Union should be noted the following : The establishment of contacts with adult education organisations ; the provision of material for and the encouragement of the formation of study circles ; the preparation of model syllabuses ; the organisation of week-end schools and of tours for those wishing to attend the International Labour Conference at Geneva. The League of Nations Union does all in its power to encourage the public library authorities to add to their shelves authoritative books on the League and international affairs. The activities briefly recorded apply not only to England but also to Scotland and to a lesser degree to Northern Ireland, but in no part of our country has school progress been made such as in Wales, to which reference is made in a separate article.

This then was the state of affairs when the Joint Committee of Enquiry began its investigations in 1928.

This Committee, referred to at the beginning of this article, has now completed its labours and produced its report. The Committee was representative of the following organisations :

Association of Education Committees,
Association of Municipal Corporations,
County Councils' Association,
Association of Head Mistresses (Incorporated),
Association of Assistant Mistresses (Incorporated),
Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters,
Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions,
National Union of Teachers,
Council of Principals of Training Colleges,
Training College Association.

Its institution came as the natural development of the series of steps which have been taken at Geneva and elsewhere towards making the teaching of the League of Nations general in all the schools of the world. First there was the famous resolution of the fourth Assembly in 1923 followed by the decision in 1924 to call for reports on the position from the States members. In 1925 came the publication of document A.10 and A.10(*a*) and the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation set up its well-known Sub-Committee of Expert, which resulted in the presentation of document A 26 to the Assembly in 1926, and in a more finished form in 1927. It is noteworthy that the recommendations of the experts were already being carried out to a certain extent in this country. The National Conference convened by

the President of the Board of Education was followed by the annual meeting of the Association of Education Committees at which the initial steps to constitute the Joint Committee of Enquiry were taken. The invitation to co-operate was promptly and enthusiastically received by administrators and teachers alike throughout the country.

The report of the Committee consists in part of a survey of the present position as revealed by the answers to three questionnaires issued to local authorities, secondary schools and training colleges respectively, and, in part, of a series of important recommendations indicating what might be done in the immediate future. The report summarises the replies received, which indicate that a sound beginning has been made, though much remains to be done. The elementary schools undoubtedly come out best. Progress in secondary schools is doubly handicapped through fear of "propaganda" and the limiting effect of history syllabuses determined by the requirements of university bodies conducting the various school examinations. The Central Welsh Board is singled out for special praise in this respect for having included world history in its syllabuses. The fear of propaganda is dismissed in a sentence as " unfounded ", and the opinion is expressed that " teachers can be trusted to introduce this teaching in the proper way ". The training colleges and university training departments are regarded as the key to the future success of this work and a special set of recommendations is made in relation to them. It is not intended to summarise all the recommendations in this article. If the plan of the Joint Committee is adopted, copies of the report will find their way almost immediately into every educational institution in this country. It will be carefully studied by teachers and administrators alike, as well as by members of local education authorities. The recommendations refer to useful publications of the League ; to teachers' courses ; attendance at Geneva during the Assembly ; supply of literature ; school celebrations ; interchange of correspondence ; school journeys ; and the interchange of school-children. The detailed recommendations about the training of teachers should, if adopted, ensure that future generations of teachers are thoroughly prepared tor the responsible task of educating citizens of a world community.

Having indicated the extent to which the recommendations of the Sub-Committee of Experts are already being carried out it might be worth while referring briefly to two suggestions which

do not find particular favour with teachers in this country. As has already been stated the teachers have always strongly maintained that they should have complete freedom both as to the inclusion of a subject in the curriculum and as to the methods by which it should be taught. In this they are supported both by the central and local education authorities. Merely to teach the dry facts of the League as a part of formal instruction prescribed by some external authority, may very well render the subject of the League permanently unattractive. For that reason also, those familiar with the conditions in primary schools find it difficult to accept recommendation 7(*f*) of the expert's report, urging that examination questions on the League should be set wherever practicable. The truth is that in League teaching, as in all really effective educational work, " it is the spirit that maketh alive ", and no measure of detailed specific knowledge of facts can compensate for a lack of appreciation of the deep underlying significance of the whole movement. While we fully realise that there is necessity for definition in teaching method and the avoidance of too wide a discursiveness, we hold strongly that this subject should not be an addition to the curriculum. Too much stress cannot be laid upon the necessity of creating and maintaining the proper atmosphere by linking this work up with the teaching of nearly every subject; nevertheless, it remains true that there are both occasions in the school year and subjects in the curriculum where opportunities will be found for teaching the basic facts of constitution and organisation without which the danger of discursiveness already mentioned will certainly arise. For this purpose a definitely appropriated part of the time-table at regular intervals for the more formal part of the instruction may well be recommended, while the incidental talks at favourable opportunities and the adoption of a more general international attitude to the various school subjects will lead gradually to a realisation of the significance of the League to the future of mankind.

The other suggestion about which some trepidation is felt, which may be allayed when the proposal is more clearly understood, has reference to the idea that in each country a special " reference book " shall be prepared for the use of teachers. In itself this appears to be desirable, but, unfortunately, the proposal has become involved with a suggestion that an authoritative national history text book should be written in each country, and that the League's publication " The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations " should be regarded as

the " common core " for all these publications.[1] This appears to be open to grave objection on two main grounds. First, it might tend to limit the freedom in choice of text books already enjoyed by the teachers. Secondly, it presupposes the possibility and desirability of approaching the study of history from one particular point of view, namely, that of the League, and of making that approach the official and authoritative one. In the pursuit of truth through a study of history, success is more likely to be achieved if students have full opportunity to view the facts from as many different angles as possible and to come to conclusions on the basis of their own observations and deductions. It would be deplorable if by any concerted national action a standardised view of historical events came to be regarded as the right and proper view to be placed before all students. There are political and economic principles involved which would bring in their train very dangerous consequences. We shall not rectify the biassed nature of much of our history teaching in the past by the application of a different and opposite bias in the future, but by a firm adherence to the principle of impartiality and aloofness from party or sectional points of view. The history student, therefore, ought to have access to as many and as varied text books as possible so that he can see the problems of the past, and evolve for himself some approximation to the truth, and some guidance for his own political philosophy. It is for these reasons that British teachers are frankly sceptical about the wisdom of the experts' recommendation as it has been explained to them so far.

Conclusion.

Ten years have elapsed since representatives of the Government of Great Britain signed the Covenant of the League of Nations. For ten years the schools of Britain have striven to enlighten future generations about the duties and responsibilities

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[1] *Editor's Note.* — It may be of interest to quote here, in full, the relevant recommendation of the Sub-Committee of Experts :

> " A special reference book, giving an account of the work of the League and the International Labour Organisation for the use of teachers should be prepared, which will probably assume a different form in various countries. The Secretary-General of the League of Nations should be asked to undertake, in co-operation with experts of his own choice, the preparation of that part of the reference book which deals with the organisation and aims of the League of Nations. In any case, all teachers who give this instruction should be provided with a copy of the Covenant and the " International Charter of Labour", with short explanations and a concise bibliography." (Recommendation 12, document A. 26. 1927.)

attaching to membership of a world community. In a message to the schools of Great Britain on Armistice Day, 1929, the following words appear :

> " We want you to be among those who do understand : who see that the world has changed; that civilised nations can prosper only by helping one another, not by destroying one another, and who mean their country to keep, in letter and spirit, the solemn Covenant that she has signed."

There are signs that this responsible task will be even more enthusiastically pursued in the future than has been the case in the past.

F. A. HOARE,
Assistant-Secretary, National Union of Teachers.

* * *

Since this article was written, the Joint Committee of Enquiry mentioned therein has presented its report on " Education and the League of Nations " to the President of the Board of Education. In receiving the Committee, the President of the Board dealt among other points with the question of books on the League to which he referred by saying that he was considering what further steps could be taken in promoting knowledge about the League of Nations in the schools. He was particularly anxious to have available, especially for teachers, a standard book containing a first-class exposition of the relation of the League of Nations to our social life to-day. The League of Nations had itself provided the nucleus of such a publication in " The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations " issued by the Secretariat. He was already investigating the possibility of having that nucleus presented, with explanations and amplifications, in a form that would be most useful for teachers in training colleges and later in their career.

Editor.

WALES.

On January 13th, 1921, the Central Welsh Board, the Authority for Intermediate Education in Wales, issued a circular to the head-teachers of secondary schools, an official document which, perhaps on account of its date and character, may come to be looked upon as historic.

"The Board", read the circular, "thinks it very desirable that the object and importance of the League of Nations should be brought to the notice of pupils in secondary schools. The subject may be most appropriately dealt with in connection with the history lessons and by occasional addresses at the opening of school. Very valuable suggestions are contained in the enclosed memorandum issued by the League of Nations Union, which the Board hopes will receive your most sympathetic consideration. The Board also suggests that a whole or half-day be devoted to a Peace Celebration on November 11th of each year."

In the same week of January 1921, the Education Section of the Welsh School of Social Service met for a three-day conference in a country house. It gave rise to the idea that it might be possible to convene a similar group which would be concerned with the educational approach to world peace. Eighteen months passed before the hope was to be realised, when the Welsh Council of the League of Nations Union, with the support of the Education Section of the Welsh School of Social Service, decided to call together at the same country house a number of educationists to think together of what might be done in Wales.

At that preliminary gathering, discussion centred on an address by Dr. Maxwell Garnett, Secretary-General of the British League of Nations Union, on "Education and International Co-operation". Those present — thirty in number — were almost all connected in one way or another with Welsh education in the universities, in the colleges and in the schools. From time to time, as the Committee took shape, other meetings were held and various people interested in education in its differing phases were invited, either as permanent members or as specialists for consultation on specific questions. Over eighty Welsh educationists have thus contributed, directly or

indirectly, to the corporate thinking which the Committee has attempted. Two meetings of the Committee, each lasting for three days, were held in 1922 and in 1923, and the Committee has met regularly once a year since for a three-day conference.

The Committee at the outset defined as its task :

(1) The making known in the schools, as historical facts, the existence and the purpose of the League of Nations, the Permanent Court of International Justice and the International Labour Organisation ;

(2) The thinking out of the question of the teaching of history and geography in its relation to world citizenship. After much discussion on history and how history should be taught in secondary schools, the mind of the Committee found unanimous expression in the following resolution adopted at its first meeting in 1922 :

> "That, without prejudice to the general question of the aims and scope of secondary education, and the general question of how far the teaching in secondary schools should be undertaken by form masters on the one hand or by specialist teachers on the other, the Committee is of opinion that the teaching of history in these schools should fulfil certain conditions, namely :
>
> "(*a*) It should treat of the story of man's development from the comparatively isolated group revealed by archæology and anthropology to the world society in which we are now living ;
>
> "(*b*) It should use local and national history, not as an end in itself or as a disconnected subject, but to focus attention and to illustrate the history of mankind;
>
> "(*c*) In close connection with the teaching of geography and literature, it should form part of a training in world citizenship and aim at providing as full an understanding as possible of the present position of the peoples of the globe."

A number of definite and immediate undertakings were held to be within the compass and the competence of the Committee :

(1) The gathering of information as to what was already being done in the schools— secondary and primary ;

(2) Getting into touch with education authorities throughout the country and in the whole sphere of education ;

(3) Arranging conferences with teachers in all areas throughout the land ;

(4) Preparing syllabuses and memoranda likely to be of service to teachers who desired to explain to their scholars the purposes of the League.

One of the surprising features in the record of the Committee is the size of its literary output ; it is so small as to be in bulk almost negligible. Possibly this restriction is accounted for, in part, by the feeling that the teacher counts for more than the book. Proceeding on this conviction, the printed pages authorised by the Committee are as few as they are essential.

1. It was held to be necessary to produce as quickly as possible a booklet dealing with the League from a teacher's point of view. This task was entrusted to a group in the University College of Bangor, and to that group is due the credit for a memorandum embodied in "Teachers and World Peace", which has been so widely circulated in the teaching profession.

2. But the teachers' memorandum was not enough. Need was felt for a model syllabus of lessons on the League, and a model syllabus was drafted by a special conference representative of Welsh primary-school teachers. Thousands of copies of "Suggestions for Teachers" have been circulated in English and in Welsh, while the pamphlet has been translated into French, German, Czech, Polish, Dutch, Italian and Spanish.

The conference representative of Welsh elementary-school teachers also emphasised the importance of geography, stressing the plea which had already been made by Professor Fleure in the third meeting of the Welsh Advisory Education Committee.

The teachers resolved that, "in order to emphasise the interdependence of nations and the unity of world civilisation, the teaching of geography from early stages should include consideration of the lives and problems of many lands, and that the geography of the child's locality should be studied by comparison with conditions in other countries".

3. The booklet "Teachers and World Peace" and the pamphlet "Suggestions for Teachers" were not meant to deal with the deeper issues with which the forward-looking educationist is always concerned. How is the primary-school teacher to help in creating in the mind of the child the outlook and

sympathy which make of history a unit and the world a neighbourhood ? The Committee decided that there should be some attempt in this direction and that it should be undertaken by a group of practical teachers.

In due time " A Scheme for a First Course in General History suitable for Elementary Schools " was presented for the consideration of the Committee with a bibliography as complete and as representative as it could be. The draft was adopted and the scheme published in 1925. A recent investigation gives unmistakable evidence of its general adoption in the Welsh elementary schools.

4. One of the difficulties on the part of the Committee was the fact that world or European history was not a qualifying subject recognised for matriculation in the University of Wales, nor was there a plan suitable for adoption in secondary schools. The Committee invited one of its members exercising great authority in university circles, Professor J. E. Lloyd, to deal with this difficulty. Professor Lloyd drew up, in pamphlet form, a suggested " Scheme for a Four Years' Course in History in a Welsh Secondary School ". The Central Welsh Board considered the scheme and agreed to the inclusion in its syllabus of the fourth year of the course for the examination at the school certificate age.

5. It has been the practice of the Committee at almost all its annual gatherings to receive reports from groups which, during the year, had undertaken special enquiries. One such group dealt with publications in Welsh for children, including a Welsh Junior Reader, a handbook in Welsh for senior children and a series of children's plays in Welsh. Another group has, for some time, been at work on "the attitude of the mind of children towards other races" based on investigations made in various schools in Wales; this enquiry is to be published in book form. Yet another group has completed its investigation on " Books Children like best " giving the opinion of 3,357 children ranging from the ages of seven years to fifteen. It has been recently published by the " Welsh Outlook " Press and includes an extensive book list for a World-Wide Reading Scheme " for age-groups 7-9, 9-11, 11-13 and 13-15.

Copies of such publications — " A Scheme for a First Course in General History " and " Books Children like best " — are sent to all the public libraries in Wales. Indeed, the Committee has paid particular attention to Public Libraries, and a short list of

suitable books on world-history and world co-operation is furnished periodically to all education authorities and to all libraries in the country.

Attention has been given to the educational possibilities of the cinema, and on several occasions the Committee has discussed the importance of radio. By the courtesy of the British Broadcasting Corporation, facilities have been given several members of the Committee to broadcast during the hours of transmission to schools.

But while allowing its proper share to the printed word and not under-estimating the power of the mass appeal, the Committee has placed its emphasis upon personal contact — personal contact with members of official organisations, with those concerned with educational administration, with Directors of Education, and, above all, with the teachers themselves.

The Committee, in meeting after meeting, has asked members best fitted for the particular task to serve on deputations to various educational bodies. Delegations have, in this way, waited upon the Central Welsh Board, upon the County Schools Association (to which belong most of the head masters and head mistresses of secondary schools) and upon the Federation of Education Authorities.

Nothing could be richer in encouragement than the sympathy of the local authorities, one by one, without exception, through the counties and county boroughs of Wales. Some of the authorities, years ago, went so far as to include the subject of the League of Nations in the curriculum as a weekly lesson.

As no difficulty was anticipated with Education Authorities, no doubt was felt about the general support of the teachers of Wales. On October 14th, 1922, the Welsh Federation of Head Teachers passed the following resolution :

> "That this meeting called by the Welsh Federation of Head Teachers pledges itself to recommend the explanation of the principles of the League of Nations to the children in the schools of Wales and Monmouthshire."

From the beginning, individual teachers in the primary schools have shown commendable initiative. The head teacher in a rural area in Anglesey who, as far back as 1923, set apart a "League of Nations room" in his little school showed himself worthy of the line of pioneers to which he belongs — the line of Robert Owen and of Henry Richard.

During the last seven years in Wales, conferences of teachers

have been held in every part of the Principality, and in this country-wide enterprise the largest share has been taken by Professor C. K. Webster, Professor of International Politics in the University of Wales. In the majority of the conferences, the teachers were granted by the Local Education Authority a half-day to hear Professor Webster on "The Teaching of World Citizenship."

> "In nearly every case", Professor Webster reported, "there was considerable discussion. There was an immense amount of goodwill and much evidence of how the subject is brought into many lessons — even arithmetic being constantly used for that purpose. There was, however, a general admission that a more systematic study was necessary, and some speakers deprecated direct teaching of any kind."

Altogether fifty teachers' conferences have now been held, attended by 7,000 teachers.

Universally throughout the land there is some teaching in the schools on the habit of regarding international co-operation as the normal way of conducting world affairs. It may be that in many cases the knowledge does not amount to a good deal. It has been said, however, that there are boys who leave the public schools of Eton and Harrow without knowing much of Latin and Greek, but they leave with the profound conviction that such languages do exist. And no child need now leave any school in Wales without a general understanding of the existence and work of the great international institutions in Geneva and at The Hague.

There are two features in the League year in Wales whose importance is as great as their promise is without limit.

(*a*) Once a year, on Goodwill Day, May 18th, the children in all the schools are invited to join in an act of international friendship. The idea was first suggested at an Adolescent Conference of the Welsh School of Social Service and put into practice in 1922. Ever since, year by year, the Welsh children's wireless message to the world is growing in its appeal to schools in Wales and in its response from schools and youth organisations abroad. In 1922, the greeting was sent out, by the courtesy of the Postmaster-General, by one of the most powerful stations in the Kingdom, and the Director of the Eiffel Tower station in Paris repeated the message by wireless telephony on the same day. In 1922, there was no reply from anywhere;

there was none in 1923. In 1924, the replies began to come in, and in 1929 responses reached Wales from schools in no less than forty-six countries throughout the world. On May 18th, 1929, a reply was sent by radio to the "call" of the children of Wales — from, amongst others, the Radio station at Tokyo, the radio station at Warsaw, the station radio-Genève, the station at Hilversum in Holland and from the station at Ljubljana in Yugoslavia.

> "We, the boys and girls of Slovenia", opened the Ljubljana message, "thank the youth of Wales for their message of goodwill. We hereby assure you of our wholehearted assistance in the fulfilling of your great task — a task worthy to be compared with the deeds of King Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table."

There is no question of the educational and cultural value of the message in the schools of Wales. It gives, year by year, easily and naturally, in secondary schools, private schools, elementarys chools, and in thousands of our Sunday-schools, the occasion for the opening of the school window towards the whole world with the League of Nations as the hope of its peace. It, at once, idealises and humanises the League as all big things must, for children, be idealised and humanised. "The wireless message", reads one report from a school, "is copied out by each pupil and is taken home to be shown to the parents." "To emphasise the children's message", reads another report, "the school is assembled in the school yard, the message is read and hearty cheers are given for the League." Increasingly, through the Annual Message, fellowship is fostered between the schools in Wales and schools in Europe and throughout the world.

(*b*) The other feature is the "Geneva Scholarships" scheme. Every year the Welsh League of Nations Union offers two "scholarships" of the value of £16 each. The scholarships are open to pupils of secondary schools. The four "top" candidates are invited to attend a viva-voce examination conducted by the examiner. In 1928 and in 1929 all four of the "top" candidates were given travelling exhibitions which enabled them to spend a fortnight at Geneva — the week before and the first week of the Assembly.

The following is a list of the text-books for the 1930 examination, which will be held on Saturday, January 25th:

1. "The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations."
2. "The League of Nations: A Survey to December 1926".
3. "The League from Year to Year (1926-27)."
4. "The League from Year to Year (1927-28)."
5. "The League of Nations", by H. Wilson Harris.

It may be of interest to give the text of the examination paper set for the 1929 examination.

(Not more than six questions should be attempted.)

1. What aspects of the work of the League directly affect the welfare of children ?
2. "The Permanent Court of International Justice will become one of the vital factors in bringing order and justice among nations." Justify this view, and distinguish clearly the special functions of the Council and of the Permanent Court in the arbitration of disputes.
3. *Either* (*a*) What progress had been made in international co-operation before 1914 ?
   Or (*b*) "The League is an aspiration rather than a reality." Discuss or criticise this view in the light of the work accomplished by the League during the last eight years.
4. What were the political issues involved in (*a*) the Memel dispute, (*b*) the Aland Islands dispute ?
5. Indicate the importance of the work of the League in improving conditions in international trade and transit.
6. Bring out the full meaning of *one* of the following statements :
   (*a*) "The central purpose of the League is the preservation of peace ; this is a constructive and not a negative obligation."
   (*b*) "Disarmament and Security go hand-in-hand."
7. *Either* (*a*) What steps has the League taken to deal with the traffic in opium ?
   Or (*b*) Give an account of the work of the League on behalf of public health.
8. "The International Labour Office, this lesser International Parliament, embodies a principle new in international affairs." Show how the International Labour Office contributes towards international peace.

9. Select any *two* of the following areas, and explain why they were placed under League control and how they are governed : (*a*) Danzig, (*b*) the Saar Basin, (*c*) Palestine.

10. "The League has been a great factor in the post-war settlement of Europe." What advantages are derived from the fact that the organisation of the League is a permanent one and that its work is carried on in public?

11. What steps would be taken by the League in the event of a political dispute arising between two States, and what powers does the League possess in dealing with such disputes?

12. Criticise the following statements :

(*a*) "If you want peace, prepare for war."
(*b*) "Disarmament means unemployment."

At the back of the school is the university and at the back of the class-teacher is the training college. They build the builder; it is upon them that the equipment of the teacher of world citizenship so largely depends. In Wales the students in all our colleges can count upon facilities for their equipment. We are specially fortunate in that the University of Wales led the way in Great Britain in the founding of a Chair of International Politics and that the members of the Faculty have always taken a wide view of their opportunities. In every university college there is a band of professors and lecturers who never stint in a practical expression of sympathy with the Advisory Education Committee in the achievement of its aims.

Concern has been shown in several meetings of the Committee about training colleges. At its meeting in December 1923 and in the presence of the principals of the largest training colleges the following resolutions were adopted:

(1) "That it is essential that the curriculum of all training colleges should include definite provision for the instruction of all intending teachers in the aims of the League of Nations and the terms of its Covenant."

(2) "That it is hoped that the training colleges would find it possible to ensure that all future teachers of history in elementary schools are qualified to teach world history.

The appearance of the General History Syllabus of the Board of Education in 1925 was warmly welcomed as the type of course

in history which the Committee had persistently advocated. And so was the "Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers" which the Board of Education published in 1927 with an appendix of 22 pages on the constitution and the achievements of the League.

Year by year, from our universities and our schools there are teachers who feel the pull of a visit to Geneva; and the Summer Courses organised by the Geneva School of International Studies have proved an attraction and are likely to prove a still greater attraction to the students in the University Colleges of Wales.

Gwilym Davies,

Hon. Director of the Advisory Education Committee of the Welsh League of Nations Union.

ROUMANIA

The Psycho-ethnical Element in Instruction concerning the League of Nations.

School education in all countries groans beneath the yoke of tradition, which chains it to the past and checks its impulse towards fresh knowledge. With great difficulty the schools make small concessions to the problems of the day. Scientific discoveries and inventions may find ready acceptance, but to new events and fresh currents in literature, history and the social sciences the door is closed. We are told to await the "test of time", an appeal to a cumbersome and complicated procedure whose verdict is only translated to school curricula after much hesitation. Among other requisite conditions, the question must first have joined the ranks of the classics, which means that the mildew must have begun to grow upon it before it reaches the impressionable minds of children.

Fortunately, the League of Nations has succeeded in forcing this rigid barrier and in adding to educational subjects the entirely new question of the League's aims and work. The idea rapidly gained currency and, surmounting all the natural and artificial frontiers which separate countries and continents, found its way into the most varied educational schemes. League of Nations teaching has become universal. Many countries welcomed it gladly, convinced of its value ; others did so to keep abreast of the times ; while others, again, have only adopted it *pro forma*, and remain fundamentally hostile. In any case, the idea is in the ascendant. All over the earth the spirit of peace is taking root in the hearts of children, and it will not easily be cast out.

To succeed thus in breaking down the barriers of scholastic tradition and gaining this rapid and universal acceptance, any new and courageous idea must enjoy powerful support. Is this success due solely to the grandeur of the idea and to the fact that men and women are ready to embrace the cause of international peace and co-operation ? Or is it due to skill on the part of those who championed and broadcast it ? Perhaps to both. Be that as it may, instruction concerning the League of Nations is to-day a part of the heritage of schools in every country. If we are to ensure development on lines conforming

as closely as possible to the original purpose, we must realise the different aspects of the problem and the special circumstances which attend it in the various countries.

* * *

In Roumania, as elsewhere, some circumstances are favourable to this teaching on the League of Nations, while others are more likely to make it difficult. The result depends upon the balance between these two hostile forces. As in the case of other countries, it is particularly important to know what are the special circumstances obtaining in Roumania, and to estimate their force and the direction in which their influence tells. However simple an idea may seem, its realisation inevitably involves modifications of method to suit conditions in different countries. Knowledge of the soil in which new ideas are sown is a fundamental principle of education. In the case of a nation, the soil is a complex of historical, psychological and social conditions wielding greater or lesser influence. These must be known, weighed and appreciated, not only to explain to some extent failure or success, but also, and chiefly, to determine the method most likely to ensure success. Account must be taken of one fact : the problem with which we are concerned is not an abstract idea but a reality bound up with the facts of daily life, and a reality which, when borne in upon the minds of children, encounters moral elements derived from the surrounding atmosphere. These elements, however little organised they may be in the untrained mind of the child, influence the way in which fresh knowledge is absorbed.

The most important among the conditions favouring League of Nations teaching in Roumania are (*a*) the pacific character of the Roumanian people, and (*b*) the present political situation.

(*a*) The Roumanian people is essentially pacific. In the course of its troubled history it has never embarked upon a war of aggression, either to extend its territory or in the pursuit of any other claims. It has never indulged a love of vain-glorious display. When Roumania has taken up arms — and the list of the struggles she has had to wage with her neighbours is a long one — she has done so every time to defend her territory against invasion or threat of invasion. And this is true, not only of the past, but of contemporary history. Modern Roumania has waged three wars — 1877-1878, 1913 and 1916-1919. It is significant that she did not initiate any of them, but that

circumstances forced her to join in conflicts started by others, from which her geographical position and other imperative considerations made it impossible for her to stand aloof ; on all these occasions Roumania only made up her mind after a long stage of hesitation and with reluctance.

The pacific spirit of the Roumanian people is reflected in the national poetry. There is no glorification of the arts of war. Roumanian popular poetry is rather lyrical and contemplative. The popular hero of Roumanian ballads is less often the soldier who falls in the defence of the country from invasion than the " haiduck ", who goes off into the forest to protect the native inhabitants from plunder and outrage. Warlike heroism is a new element traceable only in literary poetry.

Given this attitude of mind, the idea of peace and brotherhood among the nations is bound to find a responsive echo among Roumanians.

(*b*) Another favourable factor is the present political situation. The League of Nations stands as the guardian against forcible changes in the territorial *status quo* resulting from the new international arrangements. It binds all the States Members to respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and existing political independence of all Members of the League (Article 10 of the Covenant), and it advises upon the means by which this obligation shall be fulfilled.

Roumania, who has realised her national unity, will never be found in the position of an aggressor. She has everything to gain from a period of peace, which will allow her to consolidate her internal situation and to ensure her material and intellectual development. Her political interests are thus closely bound up with the aims of the League of Nations, and develop in Roumanians feelings of sympathy towards that institution, which can depend upon their loyal and active help in its work of peace.

Let us now consider the unfavourable circumstances which explain, not hostility, but a certain uneasiness in Roumania's attitude towards the work of the League. These are three in number : the question of the revision of the peace treaties, the question of disarmament, and the question of ethnical minorities.

(*a*) The question of the revision of the peace treaties, as provided for in Article 19 of the Covenant, is apt to arouse anxiety and to destroy all confidence in the stability of the post-

war situation. The agitation around this question and the threats voiced in one quarter and another are influencing the public mind and creating an atmosphere of mistrust and irritation which may be fatal to the League's chances of success.

(*b*) The question of disarmament is not less difficult. In principle, no objection can be raised to disarmament. It is a natural and logical development, in conformity with the primary aim of the League. At the same time, it is the most difficult of problems to solve, and the League of Nations has had less practical success in dealing with this question than with any other. One-sided disarmament is impossible, especially for countries threatened with attack. Roumania's position in this respect is quite exceptional. She has a common frontier and an unsettled political dispute with the only country in Europe which refuses to recognise the League. It is easy to see why urgent and well-intentioned appeals from Geneva to disarm and reduce military effectives and technical equipment for war have an unfortunate effect upon Roumanians morally, and arouse their stubborn opposition politically.

(*c*) The treaties concerning the protection of minorities have made a bad impression because they impose obligations upon certain small States but not upon big ones. Moreover, they have in practice sometimes appeared dangerous because their method of application has given rise to too frequent and often unjustified claims which weaken the political foundations of the Roumanian State.

My allusions to popular sentiment are only intended to show how certain problems which dominate the political life of a people and a period may influence public opinion to the point of leaving a lasting mark upon the minds of the young and perhaps creating a serious obstacle to the success of any educational system. Education in the schools must reckon with this state of mind, which, when conveyed to the masses through the Press and by all the other means of political dissemination, also infects young people.

Even in the first years of secondary-school life, the minds of the pupils reveal a more or less conscious tendency which is the outcome of a number of preconceived ideas as to the meaning and work of the League of Nations. To be frank, we must admit that this mental tendency, which is based upon a mistaken view, is by no means favourable to the League. Superficial public opinion, misliking the line it believes the League to be

taking in these three main problems of international policy, looks upon it generally as an organisation existing in order to curtail the sovereign rights of small nations, to encourage them to disarm, and to thwart their aspirations towards independence. This opinion regards the League as an institution which favours the centrifugal forces among the minorities (being inclined, by definition, to place in the latter unlimited confidence), and, further, as an institution which might even become an instrument for the revision of the treaties, thus threatening these small nations with the loss of the advantages they have gained by their sacrifices and by force of law.

Accordingly, League action creates among the different peoples special states of mind. Undoubtedly, countries like Great Britain, which have a long past behind them and safe frontiers, whose existence is threatened by no dangers and which need fear no external interference in their domestic affairs, are free to entertain pacific ideas unclouded by any immediate possibility of danger and offering a particularly favourable soil for the teaching with which we are here concerned. The more so, too, because in these countries the young have been vividly impressed by the physical suffering caused by the war, and this sad spectacle has not been brightened for them by any political consequences which influence the public mind. In Roumania it is impossible to speak in such decided terms of the scourge of war, for, though the inhabitants had their country invaded and their territory ravaged, and though they suffered more than many other peoples, the realisation of the national ideal through the war is such a tremendous moral gain and is so firmly anchored in their minds as to efface the memory of the atrocities they suffered from the same cause. For this reason Roumanians, in the first place, cannot curse a war which enabled them to realise their national ideal, and, secondly, they distrust any form of pacifism which might involve the sacrifice of results so dearly bought. This is the state of mind we have to grasp and must reckon with when it comes to organising the teaching we have in mind and understanding one of the most serious difficulties which this teaching will encounter.

This antagonism between an educational programme and the psycho-ethnical foundation upon which it is based is nowhere shown more clearly than in the work of the pupils in the inter-school competitions organised by the Ministry of Education, at the suggestion of the Women's Section of the F.I.D.A.C. The results of these competitions are very interesting for the

mentality they reveal. They are veritable investigations, from which we learn the opinions of our boys and girls on international and national problems related to the work of the League of Nations. The results of the first competition, which was held in 1927 with almost no preparation, are particularly valuable as spontaneous expressions of untutored states of mind. In the competitions that followed and in those still to come we shall be able to trace the influence of lessons and lectures, and the effect of the subsequent use of the school system to make the League of Nations known.

For the 1927 competition, the subject set was :

> " How can we reconcile the aims of the League of Nations with our national ideal ? "

Pupils numbering 596 from the highest class in the boys' and girls' high schools of Bucharest entered.

In the following year the examiners ventured to tackle one of the most controversial of questions, namely, the problem of minorities. The subject was formulated as follows :

> " How can a *rapprochement* be brought about between the native Roumanian population and the ethnical minorities living in Roumania, with a view to their harmonious co-operation in the pursuit of the general interests of the country ? "

The number of candidates was larger on this occasion — 1,160 pupils from the highest class of the Bucharest high schools and of a few big provincial high schools.

The organisers felt that this subject was too attractive to drop, and it was again set for the third competition in 1929. To make it more intelligible, however, and to emphasise the possibility of a favourable reply, the question was furnished with an historical basis. It was put in the following form :

> " Roumania and the ethnical minorities living on Roumanian territory : Points in regard to which the Roumanian population and the existing ethnical minorities have co-operated in Roumania's past history. How could these historical ties be used to reconcile common interests, having regard to national sovereignty, the integrity of the Roumanian State, the principles of constitutional law, and the aims of the League of Nations ? "

Pupils totalling 1,061 of both sexes, belonging to twenty-four different classes, took part in this competition.

The ideas expressed in the essays of these young people may be summed up by one word — scepticism. Scepticism concerning the possibility of realising any ideal of understanding and peace. Scepticism with regard to the pacific inclinations of peoples. Scepticism as to the effective means of action at the disposal of the League of Nations. Scepticism on the subject of the League's impartiality and good faith in many of the questions with which it has dealt. Is this the result, as we have already suggested, of Press campaigns, not all of which are entirely disinterested ? Is it a relic of age-long exclusivism ? Is it the expression of the opinions of certain extremists who refuse to budge an inch from their rigid dogmas ? Or is it the result of a phraseology too convenient to be rejected and replaced by a process of analysis which calls for an intellectual effort ? There is no doubt that these are all contributory factors. It is not for us to say whether and how far such influences are justified, but simply to state their existence and the consequences that ensue.

> " For the sake of his own mental poise as well as for the general good, the child, who is the citizen of the future, must be brought up to the notion of duty and be taught that he will have manfully to fulfil all his obligations towards his family, his comrades, his village or city, and his country. "

These wise words by the author of the " recommendations " to teachers, who are being asked to spread ideas concerning the League of Nations, constitute a programme which should at once allay the fears of those who believe in an antagonism between love of country and love of humanity. A study of the working methods of the League, a knowledge of the results which it has achieved and of its possible means of action, will help to remove preconceived ideas and to cast a favourable light both on its good intentions and on the results that may be hoped from it.

Although it has to combat so many diverse influences, the campaign which aims at spreading a knowledge of the truth and inspiring belief in the future is making headway. Its good effects are becoming more tangible every year. Their influence is extending both in breadth and in depth, and they show us that the education given in the schools follows very closely the endeavours towards a *rapprochement* made by the peoples.

By reason of their age, schoolchildren are always ahead of the rest of the population, which moves more slowly. It would, however, be wrong to separate the former from the latter and direct their education along quite separate lines.

Professor Constantin KIRITZESCU,
Director of Secondary Education in Roumania.

SWITZERLAND.

As a supplement to the general account published in the last issue of the *Survey*, it is proposed to give a few instances of what has been done in Switzerland in regard to teaching on the subject of the League in the schools.

In 1924, the Federal Department of the Interior submitted to the Conference of Cantonal Directors of Education the resolution adopted by the Assembly of the League of Nations in 1923. The Conference was of opinion that the introduction of teaching on the League of Nations and its aims "was a matter which exclusively concerned the cantonal authorities". The twenty-five Cantonal Governments were therefore left to decide for themselves whether they would officially undertake this work and what methods they should adopt.

As the result of an enquiry instituted in 1928 by M. Schär, a teacher at Burgdorf, who has been actively engaged in propaganda for the League, only five cantonal departments of education replied in the same year that they had organised instruction in the aims of the League. By 1929, however, this number had increased to twelve, and in 1930 it will certainly be larger still.

In Zurich, Basle City and Basle Country, Berne, Grisons and Neuchâtel, teaching on the League of Nations has been included in the school curricula. Most official textbooks of history and civics contain a study of the League. The new curricula all include instruction in regard to the League, and the new textbooks now being introduced also comprise a section dealing with it. The Lucerne Cantonal Board of Education requested the Executive Committee of the Teachers' Cantonal Conference to place the subject of "The League of Nations and the School" on the agenda of the annual meeting of October 1929. Federal Councillor Motta was good enough to take the matter up, and his brilliant speech, which will find an echo throughout Switzerland, aroused keen enthusiasm among the whole body of school-teachers.

The Government of the Canton of Neuchâtel has had circulated to all schools and libraries, as well as to teachers, the admirable pamphlet by Henri Duchosal entitled "The League of Nations: its Organisation and Work" ("La Société des Nations, ce qu'elle est, ce qu'elle fait") and, subsequently,

the review of the subject by the same author entitled " What are the Schools doing for the League of Nations?" ("Que fait l'école pour la Société des Nations ?") The curriculum of primary education prescribes instruction on the League, and requires teachers to explain to their pupils how necessary it is to settle international disputes by arbitration rather than by war. The keenness of the schools in interesting young people in the League is described in a very interesting report by Mlle. Evard, a teacher at the École Normale at Le Locle.

"Even during the war," she states, "the appeals of the National Education Committee of the Alliance of Swiss Women's Societies (Commission d'éducation nationale de l'Alliance de Sociétés féminines suisses), through the initiative of Mme. Pieczinska ; and of the Nouvelle Société Helvétique, through Dr. Charles Burnier, not only evoked a wide response, but led to immediate practical steps in the reform of the teaching of Swiss history, geography and current Swiss topics.

This movement quickly developed a genuine enthusiasm for the League, leading to a wider knowledge of the subject and more extensive instruction in it. Ever since the foundation of branches of the Swiss League of Nations Association, many primary- and secondary-school teachers have joined these branches, and have introduced the League in their teaching as the culmination of their courses in world history or lessons on topical subjects.

"I. In primary schools, the teaching mainly takes the form of special lessons on occasions such as the big meetings of the League (the Assembly, the Council, the International Labour Conference, meetings of the Health Committee, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, etc.). Lessons are also given on peace, the interdependence of nations, etc.

"II. In secondary schools, lessons on the League form part of the curriculum in three subjects : (1) in civics, after the study of communal, cantonal and federal institutions, a number of lessons are given providing instruction on all the organs of the League, with charts and photographs of the Council and Assembly, the present and the projected buildings, maps, etc., together with the main features of its work during the ten years of its existence ; (2) in world history a study is made of the League's origin and work,

after instruction on the main phases of the war, its causes, war conditions, etc., and the League's future prospects ; (3) in geography mention is made, in regard to each country, whether it is a Member of the League or not, its date of entry, whether it is a Member of the Council or the seat of an international organisation, etc.

"III. At the École Normale (Teachers' Training College) the same instruction is repeated, but fuller documentary information is given ; the principal personalities of the League are introduced, and its origins are studied (from the remote past of Pericles and the *Pax Romana*, the Utopias of the Abbé de Saint-Pierre, Kant, the Holy Alliance, etc., down to President Wilson and General Smuts). We study contemporary history down to the current school year, and we deal at length with all the incidents settled by the League to prevent friction or war, the part played by international arbitration, the interdependence of nations, the need for extending the action of the League by bringing the pressure of public opinion to bear on Governments in order to induce them to sign and ratify conventions, carry out recommendations of the Assembly, etc. We lay special emphasis on the idealist part played by Switzerland, comparing the former Confederation — a miniature League of Nations — with the existing League, showing what it will become, what Switzerland has done for small nations and for the entry of Germany, how M. Motta makes his influence felt in the Assembly work of M. Huber in the Permanent Court of International Justice and so on.

At Geneva, also, noteworthy work is being done, thanks to the indefatigable efforts of M. Henri Duchosal, who is a devoted friend of the League. In his admirable summary of the subject entitled "Que fait l'école pour la Société des Nations?", M. Duchosal writes as follows :

"At Geneva the study of the League's work has for some years found a place in the University courses (those of Professor Rappard and Professor Borel) and in the curriculum of history and civics at the ' École Supérieure des jeunes filles ' and the ' Collège des jeunes gens '. On the proposal of the Genevese League of Nations Association, the Education Department introduced in 1921 a chapter entitled ' The League of Nations ' in the textbook of civics used by the pupils of the primary continuation classes and the

institutions of secondary education. Undoubtedly, too, the influence of M. Albert Malche, Councillor of State, whose energetic work for the Junior Red Cross is well known, will bring about a further advance in the instruction given in the aims and work of the League. Since 1927, in accordance with a suggestion by the Genevese League of Nations Association and as a result of its generous action, a prize of 25 francs has been awarded every year, on the results of a competition, to a pupil of the upper class at a number of the secondary educational institutions. These competitions, organised by the heads of the respective institutions, are judged by juries appointed by the Education Department and the Genevese League of Nations Association. A year prior to the institution of this competition, an internal school committee, the ' Comité du Sou du Mois ', had already organised a similar competition, with prizes, at the ' École Supérieure des jeunes filles '."

At Basle, and also at Zurich, the authorities and the teachers are showing keen interest in the League, thanks mainly to the League of Nations Association. Instruction on the League is given at all schools. At the annual meeting of the " School Teachers' Voluntary Synod ", held on November 23rd, 1928, speeches were given by three distinguished educationists. Dr. H. Simons, of Berlin, spoke on " The International Factor in Education "; Professor Ernest Bovet, Secretary-General of the Swiss League of Nations Association, spoke on " The League of Nations and the School ", and Dr. Oeri, editor of the *Basler Nachrichten*, spoke on the following subject : " Is it possible and desirable to introduce the League of Nations idea in the school ? ". The Synod adopted the following motions by a large majority :

1. The fundamental idea of the League of Nations, namely, the recognition of international solidarity and the duty of nations to maintain peace, must be taught in every school which properly fulfils its educational function. Strong emphasis should be laid on the League ideal.

2. The history and organisation of the League of Nations must be taught in a measure commensurate with the extent and nature of the knowledge of the modern world required of the pupils of the particular grade.

3. The school should not be required to give special instruction in League of Nations problems.

4. In the teaching of history of all periods, attention should be drawn, in the treatment of the causes of war, to the absence of international arbitration and conciliation tribunals.

It is significant that the curricula of the Universities of Zurich, Basle, Berne, Fribourg, Lausanne and Geneva include lectures on League problems, and that an increasing number of doctorate theses are being submitted on these problems.

The public in general is unmistakably showing an increasing interest in the League, and this fact encourages and, indeed, compels all sincere friends of the League to persevere in their work on its behalf.

Dr. Ida SOMAZZI.

PART III.

Official Section.

INSTRUCTION IN THE AIMS OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS AT THE TENTH ASSEMBLY.

Readers of the *Educational Survey* will remember that, during the last Assembly, numerous speakers dwelt on the importance of educating the next generation in a spirit of co-operation and understanding. The selection of the more important passages in these speeches, which is given below, has been arranged on the following lines :

(*a*) Speeches made during the general debate on the League's work ;

(*b*) Discussions on the report of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in the Second Committee ;

(*c*) Discussions on this report in the Plenary Assembly ; and

(*d*) The relevant paragraphs of the report and resolutions themselves.

A. GENERAL DEBATE AT THE ASSEMBLY.

Sixth Plenary Meeting, September 5th, 1929.

M. Hymans (Belgium) — . . . We have served, and will continue to serve, a great ideal, which is becoming more and more an inspiration to the younger generation. They are urging us on. They it will be who will reap what we have sown ; and of this I am sure, that they in their turn will sow fresh seed.

M. Briand (France) — . . . Let me add that, if the idea of peace is to reign supreme among the nations, we must not shut our eyes to the fact that there are certain poisonous influences persistently at work. Not all men are enamoured of peace. There are in every country those who are secretly and disloyally working against peace. These movements must be watched. You who are interested in social work and are tracking down the traffic in opium and morphine must also turn your attention to certain machinations which are actually aimed at poisoning the minds of children by sowing in them the seeds of war and urging them to some *revanche* in order that the future generations may become generations of hatred and blood ! Those who, by their words, writings and teaching, are promoting this nefarious work can only be described as odious criminals who should be relentlessly hunted down and rendered incapable of harm.

This is work which is worthy of your efforts : and here it is particularly to the women that I appeal, for it is they who will have to protect their homes against these poisonous influences. If fresh wars were to break out, it is they who would be the first victims, and would water the new battlefields with their tears. It is their duty, therefore, remembering past wars, to prevent this poison from penetrating into their countries and to follow to their source all attempts to instil such poison and render them innocuous. This is the primary condition of peace. When

children are taught to love peace, to respect other nations and to look for what men have in common rather than for their points of difference, we shall no longer need to apportion guarantees or to apply Article 8 of the Covenant. Peace will already be enthroned among the nations.

Ninth Plenary Meeting, September 9th, 1929.

Dr. Stresemann (Germany) — . . . M. Briand once said how extraordinarily difficult it was to win the young to the idea of international reconciliation and peace, as the poetry of past centuries, and even modern poetry, was saturated with the idea of war heroism. That is certainly true, and we will say, in all frankness, that we are glad that heroism and readiness to lay down one's life for a great ideal will never die out among the nations of the world. But I must remind those who live upon the memories of youthful heroism throughout past centuries and past ages that, apart from anything else, the technical wars of the future will give little scope for personal heroism. I foresee that the wide field of conquest over nature will give sufficient outlet for heroism and even furnish men with opportunities of laying down their lives for great ideals. This is a vast field indeed, and one where, perhaps, in the future, the eternal riddle of man's relationship to the universe will be pondered and brought a stage nearer to its solution, to the great advantage of mankind.

Thirteenth Plenary Meeting, September 11th, 1929.

Major the Hon. William Marr (Australia) — . . . It has been stated by prominent statesmen during the course of the present session of the Assembly that the heroics of war make a tremendous appeal to youth, and it is certainly desirable that the interests of peace and its beneficial results to mankind should be kept prominently before the eyes of the younger generation. We must support the views expressed by M. Hymans that it is on the education of the young that the peace of the world must largely depend.

I was personally much impressed by the recent assembly of a great body of young men from over fifty nations throughout the world — speaking different languages, and consisting of over 50,000 representatives — who had met to commemorate the coming-of-age of that great institution, the Boy Scout movement. Surely this is one method by which the young men, who, we hope, will one day take a prominent part in the affairs of their various countries, may be encouraged to respect and honour each other and help in the uplift of the human race generally. There is scope for many such organisations, which would have as their object the cultivation of high ideals of a similar nature.

. . . A survey of the whole work of the League in all its various activities will, I believe, lead us to say that greater than all its conventions and resolutions is the educational value of its work in strengthening the will for peace, that will being based on knowledge and understanding.

M. Briand, in his speech before the Assembly, spoke with feeling regarding the children. In that connection I would like to recall the words of a former British representative here who said : " A generation is growing up which will regard war, not as a great and glorious adventure, but as a national dishonour ".

B. DISCUSSIONS IN THE SECOND COMMITTEE.

SECOND MEETING, SEPTEMBER 6HT, 1929.

M. VALDES-MENDEVILLE (Chile), Rapporteur, said, without referring to the very encouraging results achieved by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, he wished to emphasise the very special importance of the efforts made for the instruction of children and young people in the ideas and aims of the League of Nations. He considered that this work should be the pivot of intellectual co-operation, for it was on the education of the young, as M. Hymans had said in his speech to the Assembly, that the peace of the world must depend.

SIXTH MEETING, SEPTEMBER 16TH, 1929.

Mrs. HAMILTON (British Empire) said she hoped that the pamphlet entitled " The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations " would be translated into the languages of all the nations Members of the League. This was an opportunity for the Governments to show that they considered the propagation of the ideals of the League as an integral part of their educational programme.

M. MISTLER (France) said the essential aim of the League of Nations was to prevent a recurrence of war, and this was the pivot round which should turn all international efforts for intellectual co-operation. It was therefore necessary to attach an ever-growing importance to the problem of the education of the young. M. Briand had, in the Assembly, pointed out the dangers to the spirit of peace occasioned by bad educationists, who might be termed purveyors of poison. The organisation for intellectual co-operation had received, thanks to M. Casares' resolution adopted at a previous Assembly, a means of intervening at least unofficially to extirpate from educational manuals the poison therein contained.

Mme. KLUYVER (Netherlands) said a National Committee already existed in the Netherlands and one would shortly be formed in the Dutch East Indies. The Netherlands had already done much to interest its teachers in the aims of the League, and in secondary schools a study of the work of the League formed part of the curriculum. The Dutch Government had instituted national holidays in commemoration of events connected with the League and was organising an exhibition to be given on its work next year. The educational authorities had decided to translate the pamphlet on " The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations ", which, however, would be distributed by voluntary associations.

Dr. BREITSCHEID (Germany), referring to the progress towards intellectual co-operation in education, said that the Government of the Reich had already taken steps to disseminate the ideals of the League. He hoped that the grant of 33,000 francs for the translation of the pamphlet on " The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations " would be made.

Mlle. VACARESCO (Roumania) was in favour of the proposed credits and said that, in the field of education, Roumania was playing a pioneer

part. In her opinion, the work of translation and cinematography were of the first importance for intellectual co-operation, and, while in favour of private initiative in the form of national committees, she was convinced that such initiative required to be seconded by Government support.

Dr. MATSCH (Austria), referring to the International Confederation of Students, to the Boy Scout movement and other similar organisations, said that youth was playing a great part in international co-operation. He considered, in fact, that the rising generation constituted the most important factor in the future peace of the world. He therefore begged to submit a draft resolution on behalf of the Austrian delegation by which the tenth Assembly would request the Governments of all States to assist the efforts of young people in their work on behalf of a peaceful understanding between peoples.

M. BORBERG (Denmark) stressed the importance of teaching the rising generation to think internationally. In this connection, the Carnegie Fund and the International Congress of Historians at Oslo in 1928 had found traces of animosity between nations in school textbooks and were taking the necessary steps to get rid of them. He was of opinion that the League of Nations should, in its turn, take decisive steps to deal with this subject.

He suggested the possibility of convening a conference of Ministers for Education from all countries with a view to introducing officially into the school curriculum the study of the work of the League of Nations.

M. DYMSA (Lithuania) thought that the work of translation of the handbook for teachers should be concentrated at the Secretariat so as to ensure a uniformity of text.

C. DISCUSSION AT THE ASSEMBLY ON THE WORK OF THE COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

SIXTEENTH PLENARY MEETING, SEPTEMBER 21ST, 1929.

M. VALDÉS-MENDEVILLE (Chile), Rapporteur — . . . There is another point in the report and the resolutions before you which, in my opinion, is of fundamental importance ; I refer to the instruction of youth in the aims of the League.

A certain divergency of views was evinced on the Committee as to what were the right organs for the execution of this work. It was said that it was not the business of the intellectual co-operation organisations to carry on propaganda ; all, however, were agreed as to the urgent need for such instruction. I use the word instruction in a very broad sense ; I mean the intellectual training of the new generation for life in the peaceful world of the future.

I cannot do better than refer here to the very significant remarks made from this platform by such high authorities as M. Briand, Dr. Stresemann and M. Hymans.

The instruction of youth in the spirit of peace must be pursued unremittingly by every means in our power, and every kind of collaboration must be encouraged and co-ordinated — not only the official action of the Secretariat itself and of the various Governments (which have received due meed of praise in the report), but also the efforts of private bodies such as the League of Nations Associations, the work of the organisers of courses for students and teachers and the work of national administrations and committees dealing with intellectual co-operation generally.

The handbook drafted by the Secretary-General, the importance of which has been unanimously recognised by your Committee, ought to be communicated not only to the Governments which have taken a direct interest in the matter, but to all the Governments of the States Members, and there should be as many certified translations as possible, so that these Governments may place them in the hands of their teachers.

. . . All efforts of the younger generation to establish a closer intellectual co-operation ought to be supported, and helped forward. A resolution in this sense, originally moved by the Austrian delegation, has been submitted to you with the unanimous approval of the Second Committee.

I personally feel bound to support this resolution, as I do all those relating to the efforts of future generations and their instruction in ideas of peace ; for, as I had the honour of stating from this platform last year, I think it is not too much to say that, on the education of youth on the right lines and in accordance with right principles, the future peace of the world depends.

Mr. DALTON (British Empire) — . . . I should like, in conclusion, to associate myself with all that has been said by the Rapporteur on the special importance of this work among the young generations who are, after all, the most significant part of modern communities, because they will outlast the older generations who hold power and influence to-day. I believe that, in its effects upon the young generations, this work of intellectual co-operation may be particularly valuable and potent, and I hope that through intellectual co-operation, especially among the young, we may arrive at a spiritual unity and an emotional understanding one of another which may, in the future, be one of the surest bulwarks upon which the peace of the world shall repose.

D. RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE ASSEMBLY.

The Assembly is gratified at the great interest shown by the States Members of the League of Nations in the question of the instruction of youth in the aims of the League ;

It congratulates the Secretary-General on the handbook he has published with the aid of qualified experts on " The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations " and requests him to take all the necessary steps to furnish the Governments interested with as many copies of this pamphlet as they may require, and with the translations necessary to the teaching staff.

The Assembly considers the publication of the *Educational Survey* an essential complement to the work of the Secretariat in making known to the younger generation the aims and work of the League ;

It approves the convening in 1930 of the Sub-Committee of Experts for the Instruction of Youth in the aims of the League of Nations.

The Assembly, in view of the great importance of the efforts made by young people to establish closer international co-operation, requests the Governments of all the States to give the greatest possible support to these efforts which encourage friendly relations between peoples.

EXTRACT OF REPORT OF THE SECOND COMMITTEE OF THE ASSEMBLY CONCERNING INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

SEPTEMBER 20TH, 1929.

One of the special branches of the Committee's work which has, from the outset, aroused great interest is that of instructing young people in the aims of the League. The Sub-Committee of Experts established for this purpose has not met since 1927. In view of the progress achieved in this matter and the replies to the Secretary-General's circular letters, the Committee feels that this Sub-Committee should be convened in 1930 to prepare a fresh plan of campaign in the light of the important results already obtained.

Attention should be drawn to the following :

(1) The reports received from the Governments of States Members setting out all that has been done to acquaint the younger generation with the aims and organisation of the Geneva institutions and accustom this generation to regard international co-operation as the best method of solving the world's difficulties.

(2) The expansion of the Educational Information Centre set up at Geneva and in Paris.

(3) The publication of the handbook which the Secretary-General has been instructed to prepare in order, with the help of the Governments, to place at the disposal of teachers an adequate description of the aims and organisation of the League of Nations. This handbook has everywhere been very well received. The Second Committee unanimously congratulated the Secretary-General on this result andrequested that this publication be given the widest possible circulation. To meet the wishes of many Governments which have asked for a translation to be made under the supervision of the Secretariat, the Fourth Committee has decided to increase by 33,000 francs the credit entered under Article 25 of the budget for printing in this section.

(4) The publication of the *Educational Survey*, as a sort of supplement to the above, the first number of which has just been published.

The Second Committee agreed unanimously that the *Educational Survey* will be extremely useful to teachers, and it approved the decision of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to publish this *Educational Survey* twice, instead of once, annually. The Fourth Committee agreed to grant a supplementary credit of 5,000 francs for this publication.

REPORT FROM THE GOVERNMENT OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA.

LETTER FROM THE PRIME MINISTER OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA TO THE SECRETARY-GENERAL OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS.

Canberra F. C. T., August 21st, 1929.

With reference to your letter of February 23rd, 1928, C.L.32, relative to a recommendation made by the Sub-Committee of Experts for the Instruction of Young People in the Aims of the League of Nations as to the holding of national conferences with the object of considering the question of the adaptation of the Sub-Committee's general recommendations to the particular needs of each country, I have the honour to inform you that, as education is primarily a matter coming within the jurisdiction of the States, the recommendation in question, together with the other relevant recommendations of the Sub-Committee, were brought to the notice of the several State Governments in Australia.

Information has now been received from the Premier of Western Australia concerning two conferences which have been held in that State as suggested by the Sub-Committee, and I enclose copy of a letter from the Premier containing a report on the proceedings of such conferences.

The Premier of New South Wales advises that it is considered unnecessary to convene a conference so far as his State is concerned, for the following reasons: Every effort is made, consistent with their stage of development, to impress upon children the aims and value of the work of the League of Nations. Reference to the existence and aims of the League has been made in the *School Magazine*, which serves as a reader for pupils in the primary schools, and every significant occasion is taken to introduce the basic principle upon which the League is founded. The subject receives definite treatment, however, in the history syllabus for secondary schools, where it is given due prominence. In a similar way, candidates for the teaching service are suitably instructed concerning the League of Nations during their course of training, and future teachers are equipped for the dissemination of information on the subject. Further, the branch of the League of Nations Union in New South Wales endeavours to disseminate information in regard to the ideals and achievements of the League, and assistance is rendered by other bodies, such as the Workers' Educational Association, the National Council of Women and the Feminist Club.

The Premier of Victoria has forwarded a report by the Victorian Education Department on the subject, a copy of which is enclosed for the information of the Sub-Committee.

The Premier of Queensland intimates that appropriate references to matters of interest and importance to teachers and relative to the League of Nations will be included in the official organ of the Education Department, the *Education Office Gazette*. Informative articles will be included from time to time in the School Paper, and consideration will be given to the making of reference to the League of Nations under the heading of history and civics when the new syllabus for the schools is in course of compilation.

The Premier of Tasmania intimates that Tasmania is working in a general way on lines similar to those followed by the other States of Australia and, in the circumstances, does not see the necessity for a conference so far as his State is concerned. He adds that the Director of Education advises that, in all the schools, there seems to be a general willingness to promote in every way the aims and objects of the League of Nations.

Information as to the views of the South Australian authorities will be communicated to you on receipt of a reply from the Premier of that State.

For Prime Minister and Minister for External Affairs :
(Signed) N. HOWSE.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA.
Premier's Department,

Perth, July 27th, 1929.

In reply to your letter of July 25th, 1928, I have to inform you that recently two conferences have been held in Perth dealing with the question of the instruction of young people in the aims of the League of Nations.

The conferences were called by the Minister for Education, the Hon. J. M. Drew, and included representatives of the University, the Education Department, the Teachers' College, the secondary schools (Government and non-departmental), the primary schools (Government and non-departmental) and the Australian League of Nations Union.

The Hon. the Minister for Education presided over both conferences.

The Minister for Education, the Hon. J. M. Drew, opened the conference by stating that it was well that it should be made known from the outset that he had not called the conference together for the purpose of airing any fad of his own. The reason why he had summoned the conference would be made clear if he read a letter the Government had received from the Prime Minister of the Commonwealth last year.

The Minister said the Government had had several communications during the last five years from the Secretary-General of the League of Nations, through the Commonwealth Government, urging that children should be instructed in the aims and objects of the League of Nations, and it had done its best to meet the request. In 1925, a special pamphlet on the subject was prepared by the Department, and, in addition to that, an article was published by the Education Department for the information of teachers. In 1927, a further article appeared in the Education Circular, with the object of equipping teachers for their task of imparting the necessary knowledge to those under their care. In addition to that, instruction had been given in the Teachers' College. Short-course students received instruction on the formation of the League, the Covenant, and the work of the League.

Long-course students studied previous international agreements, and made a detailed study of the formation of the League, its organs and its work. The Director of Education and the Principal of the Teachers' College would be able, if necessary, to explain the extent of its activities. The Secretary-General of the League of Nations had been shown that

something had been done, but he hoped to be able to show that the movement was not a sectional one, but that all educational institutions in the State were in practical sympathy, and were prepared to contribute, so far as they could, towards the realisation of those ideals to which many nations had given their sanction. It was advisable also, in his opinion, that the instruction should be on well-ordered lines, such as could be endorsed by a body such as was present. There was no doubt that, if the League of Nations was to be something more than a false pretence, it must have the sentiment behind it, and must have a sentiment behind those statesmen who were anxious to bring about world peace. So far as he was able to judge, that sentiment could best be cultivated, and cultivated with permanent results, in the educational institutions of Western Australia and the Commonwealth as a whole, and also in those of the British Empire and the other nations of the world. No one present would contend that nothing should be done. The Mother Country had already given a good lead, as on June 8th, 1927, a conference was held at Westminster, with the object of making provision for the instruction of children and young people in the aims and objects of the League of Nations. At that conference there were representatives of the local education authorities of England, Wales, Scotland and of Northern Ireland. There were 600 representatives altogether. The conference was convened by the President of the Board of Education, by the Secretary of State for Scotland, and the Minister for Education of Northern Ireland, and it was held pursuant to an undertaking given on behalf of the British Government at the seventh Assembly of the League of Nations. The President of the Board of Education opened the Conference, and there were lengthy and sympathetic discussions. There was not one jarring note, and the following resolution was carried :

> " That this conference welcomes the steps which are being taken to give the children and the youth of this country a knowledge of the development of international relations, and of the work and aims of the League of Nations, and requests the Board of Education, the Scottish Education Department, and the Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland to circulate to the Local Education Authorities a report of the proceedings of the conference in order that they may consider the matter further in consultation with the teaching profession. "

The Minister said he felt sure that those present, with their expert knowledge, their experience, and also with their realisation of the importance of the question to be discussed, would be able to deal with the matter which had been presented to them in an effective and successful manner. The letter from the Prime Minister, although it had been sent last year, had not yet been answered, but was still awaiting reply, and he trusted that the Premier, when he replied, by reason of this conference would be able to report progress.

Dr. Andrews (Director of Education) then moved the following resolution :

> " It is desirable that the younger generation should gain some knowledge of the aims of the League of Nations, its methods of working, and its accomplishments. "

The motion was seconded and carried unanimously.

Consideration was then given by the conference to the best means of giving effect to the resolution. Considerable discussion ensued as to whether teaching on the subject of the League of Nations was desirable in the primary schools and, if so, at what stage of the child's primary-school career it should be imparted. The general opinion was that teaching of an elementary character was desirable and, provided that it was not attempted till children reached the highest class in the primary schools at about 13 years of age, the teaching could be made valuable and the subject-matter kept well within the children's powers of comprehension. The point was stressed that many children still leave school at or shortly after the completion of their primary course, and that it would not be well for them to leave without some definite knowledge of the League of Nations.

A committee was appointed to draft a resolution for conference regarding the teaching in the primary schools. The following resolution was subsequently submitted to the full conference and was unanimously adopted :

> " That definite instruction regarding the League of Nations should be given to children in the highest class in the primary schools. Such instruction should not be too detailed in character, but should deal on broad lines with (*a*) the causes that led to the establishment of the League of Nations ; (*b*) the aims of the League and its chief activities ; and (*c*) what the League has so far accomplished. "

With regard to the central and secondary schools, the discussion showed that all present were in full agreement that definite teaching of a more advanced nature was possible and should be given. The following resolution was carried unanimously :

> " The conference is of opinion that no satisfactory course in history can be given in secondary schools that does not include teaching on the subject of the League of Nations, and, therefore, it is advisable that the history syllabuses in such schools (central and secondary) should include a study of the ideals, activities, and accomplishments of the League. "

Professor Cameron explained what had been done in the past, and what was being done at present, to ensure that the teachers who were being trained at the Teachers' College should obtain a sound knowledge of the League of Nations.

Mr. F. Alexander, M.A., outlined the activities of the University, where the subject of the League forms a special section of one history course, which is also compulsory for all law students.

The discussions revealed that, for some years, teaching had been given in the various types of schools, the Teachers' College, and the University. The possibility of stimulating interest by means of prize essays, and by gathering information from other nations that are Members of the League, as to what was being done in their schools was also discussed.

(Signed) P. COLLIER,
Premier.

To the Right Honorable the Prime Minister,
Commonwealth of Australia, Canberra.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.
Education Office.

Melbourne, April 24th, 1929.

With reference to previous correspondence on the matter, I have, by direction, to inform you that a report has now been obtained upon the instruction given in the various types of schools in Victoria on the League of Nations.

Present position. — This was set out in a report to the League dated March 1st, 1927. This report has since been published by the League in a booklet entitled " How to Make the League of Nations Known and to Develop the Spirit of International Co-operation." A comparison of this report with those of other countries shows that teaching about the League in Victorian schools requires extension rather than alteration.

As to the method of teaching, it is important that instruction should not be given in isolated lessons. At various conferences held under the League auspices in London and Geneva, it was urged that the teaching should be correlated with lessons in history and civics, geography and the like. So long as teaching is confined to the machinery and functions of the League, this method would probably prove satisfactory.

But successful teaching must convey spirit as well as fact ; and it is the spirit of the League of Nations that most needs to be taught. As stated in the above-mentioned report, the aim has been to teach, through the School Paper, the need for international relationship. This is the true basis of all teaching about the League.

Since this report appeared, the same policy has been followed. Briefly summarised, the present position is as follows :

Elementary Schools. — Curriculum. — History stories prescribed for the Third Grade deal with famous men and women of the past. Many of these belong to other nations. The history for Grades IV to VIII is mainly British history.

In notes on the course in history and civics (Course of Study for Elementary Schools, 1920) this sentence appears : " The sense of a greater human brotherhood and of an obligation to our fellows that transcends all mere geographical boundaries has developed out of this great conflict (the war of 1914-1918), and the school, both in its regular lessons and in its corporate life, may do much to deepen and strengthen this bond of human fellowship. "

Special Reading in the School Paper. — From time to time, particularly in November of each year, articles dealing with international goodwill and the League of Nations have been published in the School Paper. This is one of the best means of disseminating international ideals and news.

Post Primary Schools. — High School Course. — The League of Nations is dealt with in the second and fourth years (history and civics). In the suggested course for the second year it is recommended that lessons (not more than six) should be given on the League of Nations.

For the fourth year the specific textbook, ELLIS — " Australia and the League of Nations ", is recommended. The textbooks recommended for civics, LAY — " Citizenship " and HOY — " Civics for Australasian Schools ", each devote space to an outline of the League's activities. A few schools have organised study circles and have affiliated with the League of Nations Union.

Technical School Course. — In the syllabus for civics, no mention is made of the League of Nations.

Teachers' Colleges. — A course in world history is taken by students of the primary course, and the League of Nations is dealt with in the section of the course devoted to a study of modern political institutions. Other students, with the exception of secondary students taking a history course, learn about the League only in an indirect way.

Many recommentations for the extension of this instruction have been made.

In general, these recommendations urge the co-ordination of instruction in primary and post-primary schools and the teachers' colleges ; the establishment of study circles in higher schools and colleges ; the promotion of contacts with children of other lands by means of exchange of letters, postcards, and the like ; and the special study of Australia's Pacific relations and obligations.

(Signed) M. H. BOTTOMS,
Secretary.

The Honourable the Premier of Victoria,
Melbourne.

EDUCATIONAL FILMS AND ABOLITION OF CUSTOMS DUTIES.

A Committee of Experts recently met at the League Secretariat in Geneva and the Editor believes that a brief account of these first international measures towards the suppression of Customs duties on educational films will be of interest to readers of the Survey.

A Committee of Experts set up by the International Educational Cinematographic Institute at Rome, met in Geneva from December 12th to 14th in order to study the possibilities of an international agreement for the suppression of Customs duties on educational films.

The Committee prepared a preliminary draft Convention proposing the exemption of educational films from all Customs duties.

The preliminary draft distinguishes the following categories of educational films :

(1) Films to spread knowledge of the League of Nations ;

(2) Films prepared with a general educational purpose ;

(3) Films intended for professional education and information, including the scientific organisation of labour ;

(4) Films intended for scientific and technical research ;

(5) Films intended for learned societies and scientific institutions ;

(6) Films dealing with matters of health and social reform.

All requests for a statement of the international value of individual educational films will be addressed to the International Educational Cinematographic Institute for examination, together with a certificate issued in each country by a qualified organ, which the signatory Governments will be required to set up. If the film is admitted to fall within the above categories, the Institute will issue a certificate upon presentation of which the film will be exempt from import, export and transit duties.

This certificate will not constitute a guarantee of the educational value of the film; its only object will be to enable films to pass through the Customs with the minimum charges and formalities.

The preliminary draft Convention also provides for an appeal, in case the International Educational Cinematographic Institute refuses a certificate, to a permanent Committee of Experts to be set up by the Council of the League of Nations.

The States acceding to the Convention will retain the right to censor the performance of films, in conformity with their own legislation, and to prohibit or restrict the importation, exportation or transit of films, when such measures are dictated by reasons of public security.

The preliminary draft Convention prepared by the Experts will be communicated to the members of the Governing Body of the International Educational Cinematographic Institute and to its Permanent Executive Committee and then to the Council of the League of Nations.

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EDITORIAL.

The principal event since the last issue of the *Educational Survey* has been the meeting of the Sub-Committee of Experts for the Instruction of Youth in the Aims of the League of Nations. The Sub-Committee had not met since 1927, and it therefore found itself confronted with a very different situation from that when its original recommendations were drafted. Not only have these become very widely known and been applied in a large number of countries, including States non-Members of the League, but there have been considerable developments in the work of the League itself following upon the recommendations. Thus the Sub-Committee was able to discuss the work of the Educational Information Centre set up at Geneva and Paris, and to deal with questions arising out of the new League publications in this field : the handbook on "The Aims and Organisation of the League" and the *Educational Survey*.

The principal discussion at the meetings was on the subject of an international educational conference. It was generally felt that the time for detailed reccmmendations had passed. Work was proceeding in a considerable number of countries along the lines laid down in 1927 and it was permissible to look forward to steady progress in this field. It was, indeed, pointed out that certain countries and even regions were exceptions to this general tendency, and stress was laid upon the importance of maintaining and developing relations with these, as also on the value of journeys undertaken with a view to obtaining first-hand information and forming a sound judgment on the comparative merits of the various efforts now being made. But the main attention was concentrated on the question as to the best means of providing for a satisfactory exchange of views between the educators concerned with the problem in different countries.

In this connection, three different projects came under discussion : the first was a proposal for a World Education Congress directed to the problem of education for peace. This was presented by a delegation consisting of Professor Ruyssen, Professor Pierre Bovet and the Countess Dohna, representing the International Federation of League of Nations Societies. By means of a large-scale congress of this kind,

it was argued, the Governments and other authorities concerned would be awakened to the wide interest taken in the question and the way would thus be open for the adoption of practical measures. Amongst those specially mentioned were the according of support to holiday courses on the League at Geneva and elsewhere, the official recognition of a League of Nations day in the schools and other similar matters arising out of the recommendations of 1926.

A second proposal was one which emanated originally from the University Relations Sub-Committee of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. It contemplated the summoning of a conference of Directors of Higher Education : that is to say, of the officials in Ministries of Public Instruction who are directly concerned with university and other forms of higher education. It was urged in favour of this plan that it would bring together the men who were actually in a position to give effect to new policies in regard to such matters as the equivalence of degrees and the exchange of professors ; and also that a conference with a limited objective, confined to one branch of education, would be more likely to obtain practical results. It was, however, recognised that the diversity of national educational systems and the autonomy of universities in many countries would make it useful, if not indispensable, to have also direct university representation at such a conference. In this form, a resolution approving such a conference was finally adopted. If, as there is every reason to hope, this plan or a similar but more restricted one, should be realised, the League will be extending to the field of education those methods of consultation and collaboration between national officials which have been so successfully applied during the past years in so many technical fields.

The Sub-Committee has also before it a resolution transmitted to it by the Third Conference of Institutes for the Scientific Study of Politics, which met in Paris from June 12th to 14th. This gathering, to whose work attention has previously been drawn in the *Educational Survey*, expressed the formal desire to co-operate with the Sub-Committee of Experts. The resolution to this effect laid it down, in words which are worth quoting, that " the maintenance of peace and the development of international understanding are largely dependent upon the diffusion throughout all stages of education of the scientific temper in regard to contemporary problems ". Thus, just as chemists or geologists feel a corporate responsibility that the school-

teaching in their own subject should not be old-fashioned and out of date, so those who have dedicated themselves to the comparatively new study of international relations have expressed the desire that means should be devised to enable their methods and standards to penetrate into the schools.

A plan suggested for applying this idea in practical form was through the organisation of study-travel for groups of local educational administrators, on the lines of the system so successfully developed by the Health Section of the League for public health officials. If such a conference were organised, the arrangements in each country visited might be carried out with the co-operation of the institution concerned in that country with the scientific study of international relations. For the time being, however, the Sub-Committee contented itself with a cordial acceptance of the invitation to co-operate, and the Chairman was asked to appoint three members of the Sub-Committee to confer with the Executive Committee of the Conference for the Scientific Study of International Relations.

Of the other resolutions adopted, the majority were concerned with matters of organisation. Perhaps the most important of these was the decision to invite the Governments to send in regular reports, at least every two years, as to new measures taken to apply the recommendations. Stress was also laid on the importance of the national conferences recommended in 1926. So far, this recommendation has only been acted upon in a few countries — *e.g.*, Great Britain, Germany and Western Australia. It is urged in extenuation that countries with a more centralised system than that of Great Britain have no need of a conference in order to put a new policy into force. But, as the example of Germany shows, this is a double-edged argument, for, where a policy is applied by a central authority, there may be all the more need to devise means, such as are provided by a conference, to explain its purpose and value to those who are called upon, sometimes at short notice and without adequate preparation, to carry it out. In this connection, the reader may be referred to the article in which Dr. Lötschert, of Cologne, deals with some of the work accomplished at the German National Conference.

Another resolution raised a matter of great importance, asking the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to study the possibility of instituting an enquiry into the school-books in use in different countries on such subjects as history, geography, and civic and moral instruction. The suggestion put

forward was that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should work out a uniform plan which would then be carried out in each country with the assent of the Government.

An interesting discussion took place on the subject of broadcasting, following upon communications from Mr. A. R. Burrows, Secretary-General of the International Broadcasting Union, who attended the Sub-Committee in person, and M. de Feo, Director of the International Institute of Educational Cinematography. A resolution was adopted, urging the most extended use of broadcasting for the purposes of the Sub-Committee, and suggesting, in particular, that well-known authorities should be asked to give regular talks commenting on the events of the day from the point of view of peace and international accord.

A similar resolution was adopted with regard to the cinema, the Rome Institute being asked to devote an important part of its activities to the study of the best means to develop the possibilities of the moving picture, whether with or without speech, for the promotion of international understanding.

Another resolution took up the question of library facilities, urging that, from the university library down to the humblest collection of books in a primary school or popular institution, special account should be taken of the literature dealing with the League, which would be best suited to each particular public.

Various other resolutions urged the publication of further popular literature on the League through official channels and the increase of facilities for the distribution of the existing material. The procedure for keeping up to date the handbook on " The Aims and Organisation of the League " was also laid down, and the means to be taken for distinguishing additions made in the various countries to the original text.

Finally, a resolution was passed, expressing satisfaction at the work accomplished since the last meeting in 1927 and particularly at the issue of the *Educational Survey* as an instrument for keeping the public informed of further progress in the many fields covered by the recommendations.

PART I.

The following article was communicated to the Sub-Committee of Experts for the Instruction of Youth in the Aims of the League of Nations as an example of the way in which a national organisation has been able to make use of broadcasting for purposes of international understanding. — *Editor.*

BROADCASTING AS A MEANS OF PROMOTING INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

Introductory.

The international implications of broadcasting are inherent in the medium itself, and no system of broadcasting conceived on a purely national basis could hope to achieve success. This fact was from the beginning recognised by the British Broadcasting Corporation, who adopted as their motto the words: " Nation shall speak peace unto Nation ", and who took the initiative in 1925 in forming the International Broadcasting Union, of which all the principal broadcasting systems in the world are members and associates. According to the latest figures, the Union represents 330 transmitting stations, serving 22½ million households, or a total of about 90 million individuals, and twenty-one European nations took part in this year's deliberations of the Union. Although the primary object for which the Union was formed was to secure improved reception conditions and technical developments generally, yet international co-operation in programmes, the exchange of information on broadcast education, etc., have inevitably led to the discussion of international problems and to a general undertaking, binding on all members of the Union, to abstain from propaganda against each other It is perhaps not widely enough recognised what a remarkable effect such a policy is likely to have, consciously or unconsciously, on the minds of the vast body of listeners to wireless programmes. In England, this undertaking is scrupulously observed in spirit and in letter. All programmes, whether plays, entertainments, news, educational or general talks, are considered from this angle, and any matter which might tend to arouse old bitterness or aggravate national differences is carefully excluded.

The growth of international broadcasting has clearly also a stimulating effect on the imagination of children and adults alike. The romantic appeal of being able to listen to the voices

or the music of foreign peoples in a friendly atmosphere, the extent to which listeners all over the world can listen to the same speech and jointly experience the feelings aroused by it, seem, so far as any evidence exists, to produce a sentiment of neighbourliness which it should be possible to exploit in the interests of international co-operation. Such results are often better achieved, however, by informal and indirect means than by official pronouncements or openly instructional lectures. It was reported, after a broadcast of the " Ceremony of the Keys " at the Tower of London (the locking of the historic gates by the " Yeomen of the Guard " on duty), that for many listeners in Germany the actual sound of the key turning in the ancient lock had an appeal none the less real because it was sentimental, just as for Australian listeners the first broadcast of an English nightingale seemed to bring them nearer home.

Broadcast Talks.

In their general programmes as well as in their avowedly educational programmes, the British Broadcasting Corporation are endeavouring to promote directly or indirectly a keener interest in international affairs, and have given special attention to the methods by which such programmes may be made attractive to the largest number of listeners. For this reason, they have been chary of broadcasting stereotyped bulletins of information, but have endeavoured to find speakers, both to children and to adults, who possessed the knowledge and the personality to make such subjects alive and interesting, as well as authoritative. Since 1928, they have been fortunate in securing the services of Mr. Vernon Bartlett, the representative of the League of Nations in London, whose qualities as a novelist and a journalist have helped him to make his weekly talks on international affairs one of the most popular events in the whole programme. The evidence shows that these talks are followed regularly by listeners of all ages and all classes, and the general result in stimulating a wide interest in the affairs of foreign countries must be very great indeed. These talks are not labelled " League of Nations Talks ". They appear in the programmes under the title of " The Way of the World ". They do not deal primarily with League activities ; but the frankness and fairness with which current problems are handled in a League spirit make them, in the opinion of the British

Broadcasting Corporation, a far more valuable and persuasive form of propaganda than appeals of a more direct kind.

The main piece of direct propaganda undertaken by the British Broadcasting Corporation is the special series of relays annually given from Geneva during the sitting of the Assembly. Since 1927, attempts have been made to broadcast a descriptive commentary of the opening ceremony, as well as a weekly talk from the studio of Radio-Genève, either by Mr. Bartlett or — as last year — by the principal British delegates. Technically, the facilities for these talks are still far from perfect, but it is hoped that improved communications are only a matter of time, and there is no doubt of their value and general interest.

Further, there is a definite aim, in the planning and selecting of all series of talks, to give them as far as possible an international setting. So many problems and tendencies of the day have ceased to be national, and become international, that the British Broadcasting Corporation feels that in securing speakers with the necessary qualifications to treat these subjects from this angle they are rendering a real service to the cause of international co-operation. For example, Dr. Delisle Burns, in his recent series on " Post-War Social Tendencies ", adopted an essentially international viewpoint throughout, and devoted two out of the six talks to specifically international questions. Similarly, when considering economic and industrial problems and even practical philosophy the international outlook is not forgotten. Again, at intervals, talks are broadcast on different nations, such as those on China last summer and those now being given on America under the title of " Stars and Stripes "; in each case these talks are designed to explain the national characteristics, habits and culture of one nation to another. It was recently decided to include at least three series of talks on international affairs in every year in the educational programme for adults. This plan was started in the spring of this year by a series on " International Co-operation ". Five different aspects of the question were selected and dealt with by experts — Professor Gilbert Murray on " Intellectual Co-operation ", Professor P. J. Noel Baker on " Politics ", Mr. W. T. Layton on " Economics ", Mr. W. M. Citrine on " Labour ", and Major Walter Elliot on " Health and Social Problems ". The series was completed by a summing up by Viscount Cecil of Chelwood. A series is now starting on " Labour and International Affairs ", which will explain the work of the International Labour Organisation. Talks will be

relayed from Geneva during the International Labour Conference, and the speakers will include, Mr. H. B. Butler, Professor Zimmern, Miss Margaret Bondfield, and several other delegates to the Conference. For the autumn of this year, two series of talks are being arranged to form the basis of further talks on international affairs in the spring of 1931. The first of these will take the form of international conversations, in which suitable representatives of six different nations will be asked in turn to discuss national differences and national characteristics with appropriate English representatives. Following on this, Professor J. Arnold TOYNBEE, the author of the " Annual Survey of International Affairs", published by the Royal Institute of International Affairs, will give six talks on " The New Map of Europe ". It may perhaps be added that regular foreign language talks are broadcast twice a week, at present in German and French.

An important and interesting feature of the educational work of the British Broadcasting Corporation is the growth of " Wireless Discussion Groups ". These groups of people, varying in numbers from 5 to 40, meet together to listen to talks and discuss them under a leader. There are now over 300 of these groups in being, got together sometimes by educational organisations, sometimes by private initiative. By this means, the work of the British Broadcasting Corporation is adding to the number of students of international affairs and also, through co-operation with the League of Nations Union, providing authoritative information for those interested in the work of the League and the problems which it has to face. A single example will show the result of this type of work. A branch of the Y.M.C.A. at Blackburn formed a group to listen to the talks on " International Co-operation " last spring. As a result of the interest aroused, a branch of the League of Nations Union was formed with the members of the group as its nucleus. In this case, broadcasting indirectly (which is the only effective way) performed the function of recruiting agent for the League of Nations Union.

In 1929, the British Broadcasting Corporation enlisted the help of all the main bodies engaged in adult education to assist in the planning of educational series, and in the organisation of reading and discussion among listeners. Representatives of these bodies, together with a proportion of nominated members, form a Central Council for Broadcast Adult Education, which works mainly through an Executive Committee and

Sub-Committees. The present Lord Chancellor was its first Chairman, and the Archbishop of York, one of the pioneers of the working-class educational movement, is the present Chairman. The policy of the Council is one of wholehearted interest in the League of Nations and the principles for which it stands, and their influence will tend to consolidate the general attitude outlined above.

School Broadcasting.

The responsibility for the development of school broadcasting has now been devolved by the British Broadcasting Corporation upon another Central Council, representing all the important educational interests in Great Britain and Northern Ireland. This Council has established machinery for exercising detailed supervision of programme and pamphlet material, designed for use in schools. Here, too, in their work we find evidence of an active desire to promote the international spirit.

The Council was established in February 1929, and a series of subject committees was set up — one for each subject of the curriculum — consisting of experts in the subject itself, and in methods of teaching the subject, together with a number of teachers from schools using the broadcast lessons. Since the Council began work, a series of talks on International Affairs has been given by Mr. Vernon Bartlett (who was already a favourite broadcaster to schools), and another has been planned for next year. A further series of talks was given on " Newspapers and the World ", by Mr. Wilson Harris, which resolved itself into a weekly discussion on current events with an international basis. The Council has arranged that the history series for next year — a course of talks designed to supply a background of social history to the ordinary information found in textbooks — shall deal with boys and girls of Europe, instead of, as in previous years, with Britain alone. A story for younger children is broadcast every Monday, from the mythology and folklore of the world. A series of talks on the development of communications is at present being given by Lieutenant-Colonel J. T. C. Moore-Brabazon, formerly Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Transport, and this, too, deals with the development of transport from an international angle. French and German readings and dialogues are broadcast week by week, and are eagerly followed by the central and

secondary schools. Spanish readings were given for two terms, but these were discontinued owing to lack of support. If the number of schools which take Spanish increases, however, the Spanish talks will be resumed later on. Lastly, throughout the academic year, a weekly travel talk is broadcast by travellers familiar with every part of the world. These talks have been given under the title " Peoples of the World and their Homes ", and have been specifically designed to draw attention to the similarities and differences in the lives of people of other lands.

These notes may perhaps suggest ways in which broadcasting authorities in other countries may be able to make use of British experience in attempting to interest their listeners directly or indirectly in the international outlook, with, of course, such modifications as may be called for by differing circumstances.

Hilda MATHESON,
Talks Director, British Broadcasting Corporation.

SOME IMPRESSIONS OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

The Sub-Committee of Experts for the Instruction of Youth in the Aims of the League of Nations contains no representative of the United States — doubtless due to the fact that the United States is not a Member of the League. Nevertheless, the recommendations of the Sub-Committee have been carried out in the United States to a surprising degree, in some respects more completely than in any Member State.

A variety of circumstances has contributed to this result. In the main, four factors may be distinguished :

1. The abstention of the United States from membership in the League has had the effect of throwing the responsibility for making the League known in the United States upon voluntary effort. Since the intellectual classes in the country, notably the educators, the ministers of religion and the librarians, in general favoured the League and often felt very keenly the consequences of American non-membership, there has been in the past decade a vast expenditure of effort in bringing international problems before the American people. A recent survey drawn up by Dr. J. David Thompson, Executive Secretary of the American National Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, for the Advisory Committee on International Relations of the Social Science Research Council, gives a list of ninety-three separate agencies concerned with the study of international affairs, some of them equipped with very large resources. The activity thus directed, although no doubt stimulated in large part by the political events of 1920, has not been concentrated mainly or even principally on the League. Indeed, a deliberate effort has been made to avoid exciting party conflicts, and this has had the effect, which from the educational standpoint may be regarded as wholly fortunate, of causing greater attention to be devoted to broad underlying factors and so transferring the discussion from the narrow field of political controversy to that of general enlightenment. Already in 1924 one of the shrewdest observers of his fellow-countrymen, whilst attending the debates on the Geneva Protocol, remarked that American public opinion, whilst still reluctant to accept the Covenant,

would probably soon be prepared, if it was not prepared already, to accept a more far-reaching obligation against war. His foresight was justified ; the promulgation of the Kellogg Pact, so far from being in advance of public opinion, was brought about by its insistence. It is not surprising, then, that the same influences which have proved so powerful in the political domain should be strongly in evidence in their own special field of public education.

2. The Kellogg Pact came as a culmination to steady unofficial work. The effects of the Kellogg Pact upon public opinion are unmistakeable for anyone returning to the United States after a few years' absence. It has given the American people a positive international policy, adapted to its own special outlook and traditions, and has thus removed at one blow the defensive attitude and the sense of frustration with which international co-operation had been associated in the public mind since 1920. Thus the adoption by the United States of an official international policy, taken together with the work already accomplished or prepared by voluntary effort, has brought about a situation peculiarly favourable for an advance in the educational field — all the more so because, as has been repeatedly emphasised in the highest quarters, the main, if not the sole, driving force and sanction of the Kellogg Pact consists in the movement of public opinion.

3. An important factor in the execution of the Sub-Committee's recommendations is the organising skill which has been developed in the United States in the field of public education. The United States is by far the largest and wealthiest single area of organised intellectual co-operation in the world and the organisation set on foot for this purpose is undoubtedly in many respects a model for other countries, harmonising as it does in a remarkable degree the twin principles of centralised supervision with the diffusion of responsibility amongst individuals and local centres. The very number and variety of the agencies concerned has indeed made the development of such central supervisory and informative organisations indispensable. So soon, therefore, as an idea, such as the promotion of education in international affairs, has become accepted as a general policy, there are countless channels available by which it can be conveyed throughout the country. Thus, to take the case of libraries, although every

institution is free to purchase its own books, the fact that the American Library Association, with its very large membership among individual librarians, has shown itself interested in the subject to the extent of inviting a first-rate authority to contribute a volume in a special series which it is editing with particular regard to the needs of public libraries is certain to result in a large number of institutions having their shelves well stocked on the subject : for the volume, like the others in the series, will contain a select bibliography and the sums available in American public libraries for the purchase of books are often beyond the dreams of European librarians. In the same way, although each of the 300 odd university institutions is autonomous, their attitude towards the study of international relations is much influenced by representative central bodies, such as the Social Science Research Council, the American Political Science Association, the American Historical Association, the American Academy of Political and Social Science and the annual conference of American teachers of international law. With these should be mentioned other bodies less representative but equally influential in their own field, such as the Institute of International Education, which promotes and arranges visits of foreign scholars to niversities throughout the country, the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, which maintains International Relations Clubs in a large number of the smaller colleges and provides them with collections of books on international affairs, and the Guggenheim Foundation, which in the current year is maintaning four fellowships in the field of international affairs, including one for a specific study of the League of Nations. The cumulative effect of these various agencies in arousing the interest of teachers and students in the subject can be only roughly measured by the increase in the chairs and other teaching positions specifically devoted to international relations and in such summer courses as those at Williamstown, the University of Chicago, the University of Southern California at Los Angeles and the University of Washington at Seattle. As an illustration of what has been achieved in the last five years by a single university body in the field of research in international affairs may be cited the report of the Bureau of International Research of Harvard University and Radcliffe College, showing a list of forty-four research projects actually undertaken.

4. This rapid extension of interest in international affairs is itself the outcome of a deeper tendency which has an important

place in this connection. The United States is a great new country and the interest of its people is quite naturally centred upon the present and the future, rather than on the past. Thus, while the cause of education in international affairs has to contend, in Europe, with educators who are by habit and tradition suspicious of the admission of subjects of contemporary interest into the school or university curriculum, no such obstacle exists in the United States. Indeed, the dominant educational policy in the United States at the present time, due in part no doubt to the problem presented by the recent immigrants and their families, lays far more stress on relating the student to his environment than on the acquisition of knowledge or the cultivation of mental discipline. One effect of this has been a movement to replace the separate school courses in history, geography and civics by a single broad course in social science, the declared object of which is — to quote from a representative syllabus — " to interpret the industrial, social and economic contacts of the pupil with his environment ". Thus the study of international relations finds its natural place in the interpretation of the larger environment. This particular syllabus, which is based on that in a number of other centres, is planned as a continuous course in social studies for the entire twelve years from the primary school to the end of the high school period; United States history is taken in the eighth year, civics, vocational guidance and international relations in the ninth and world history in the tenth. The " objective " of the study of world history is defined as "to create a background in the mind of the pupil adequate to explain the life of to-day. The outline is built upon the basic idea of contributions to modern civilisation made by various peoples and periods. This necessitates omitting much political and military material hitherto considered essential and placing the emphasis on the social and economic aspects of life ". Thus even in the study of history, the American approach is to-day pre-eminently social and economic. It is indeed through emphasising the fact of economic interdependence that the idea of international co-operation and of the League of Nations is most naturally presented to the American mind and the achievements of the League in this field, in which individual Americans have played a notable part, can always be sure of an attentive and appreciative reception.

* * *

The specific campaign for the carrying-out of the first part of the Sub-Committee's recommendations (those relating to the teaching of the aims and achievements of the League of Nations itself) has been mainly in the hands of the Educational Committee of the American League of Nations Association, although certain other bodies, such as the World Peace Foundation with its useful League of Nations year-books, have shown great resourcefulness and tenacity in conducting this work under what were at the outset very discouraging conditions and, for the reasons already mentioned, the campaign is now reaping the reward of persistence. Three particularly interesting initiatives arising out of the Sub-Committee's report deserve special mention.

1. The Sub-Committee recommended that " a special reference book giving an account of the work of the League of Nations and the International Labour Organisation for the use of teachers should be prepared, which will probably assume a different form in various countries ". These national books, the report went on to say, should incorporate a section dealing with the organisation and aims of the League, to be prepared by the Secretary-General. The Secretary-General's chapters were issued in the early part of 1929. The American League of Nations Association immediately undertook the remaining portion of the American volume, planning ten chapters on the work of the League, approximately equal in length to the Secretary-General's contribution. The resulting composite volume of 144 pages was issued in January 1930 at the cost of 15 cents with the title *A Ten-Year Review of the League of Nations*, being described in the sub-title as the " Official Text-book for the Fourth National Competitive Examination on the League of Nations for High School Students ". The Association has also issued a volume, entitled *Cease Firing*, in which the various aspects of the work of the League are set forth in graphic language, so as to appeal to the imagination of young people. The subjects and episodes have been chosen with great care, and the volume is a successful example of a very difficult form of composition.

2. The National Competitive Examination already mentioned is another remarkable initiative on the part of the Association. The Sub-Committee recommended, as one of the methods open to education authorities for the popularisation of the League,

the " instituting of a competition open to the pupils of a particular school, district or country for the best essay on a subject connected with the League of Nations ". Since this recommendation was not likely to be carried out in the United States by the official authorities, it fell to the Association to attempt to give effect to it. The method adopted has been that of a nation-wide competition in secondary, or high schools, the first prize being a free trip to Geneva at the time of the Assembly. The fourth examination has recently been held, and this year students in no less than 1,318 out of a total of some 7,000 high schools throughout the country took part in it. Only the two best papers from each school are sent up to the central office, the preliminary selection being made by the school authorities, who are thus drawn into the educational net. As will be seen from the copy of this year's questions printed in Annex I, the paper is most carefully set, being designed to discover whether the student has really reflected on the problems of the League and not merely acquainted himself with the surface facts. The effect of the composition in stimulating an intelligent interest in the League undoubtedly extends far beyond the many thousand actual examinees and their immediate teachers.

A similar contest was first organised in 1929 for students in teachers' colleges and normal schools, the exercise given being a thesis of from 3,000 to 5,000 words on one of a number of specified subjects. The second contest was held in March 1930, and the subjects set will be found in Annex II of this article. This contest is open to any regularly enrolled student in a teachers' college, normal school or department of education of a college or university who sends in a registration. The theses are judged on a knowledge of the subject, judgment shown, the organisation of the material and on style. Every thesis must be accompanied by a complete bibliography of material used. In this contest, also, the first prize consists of a trip to Europe. The figures for the two competitions were as follows :

Fourth National Competitive Examination.

Total number of high schools in the United States.	7,297
Total number of schools registered for the competition in 1930 (in 1929, 1,114)	1,318

Total number of schools submitting papers in 1930	745
Total number of papers submitted from 48 States (not more than two papers from each school).	1,277

Teachers' College Contest.

Number of students registered.	326
Number of papers received (from 34 States and the District of Columbia).	128

3. A third direction in which the Association has been very active is in the organisation of so-called model Assemblies and Councils of the League of Nations. This is an initiative which goes beyond the actual recommendations of the Sub-Committee. The experts do indeed speak, in various passages of their report, of the desirability of providing " visual aids " and " material for visual instruction " regarding the work of the League, and, in another connection of " fêtes and pageants " as " appeals to the esthetic sense that will encourage a mutual knowledge of different civilisations and peoples ". But the " visual aids " contemplated were of the nature of films and lantern-slides, whilst the pageants were thought of rather as illustrating the life of the nations, Members of the League, than of the League itself. It has, however, been felt in the United States that the remoteness of Geneva, together with the absence of the United States from the Assembly and the Council, rendered it desirable to attempt to " bring the League home to the American mind " by a concrete representation of its actual procedure. Once adopted, the device proved exceedingly popular. Intercollegiate model Assemblies between groups of colleges are being held increasingly in different parts of the United States and in Canada, and the movement has recently shown signs of spreading among associations of adults. It therefore merits special examination as a method for achieving the results aimed at in the Sub-Committee's recommendations.

A " Model Assembly " or " Council " conforms to one of two types and these must be clearly distinguished before any judgment can be formed on the movement as a whole. The first type is that of a representation of Geneva pure and simple.

An episode is selected from the sittings of the Assembly or the Council, and the students, or other performers, are simply actors whose object is to " visualise " for American spectators the actual proceedings at Geneva. No doubt some liberties must be taken with the text. The speeches must be shortened, irrelevant matter omitted, and a continuity preserved even at the cost of chronological accuracy. But the sole object of any changes made will be to enhance the dramatic realism of the representation to transpose Geneva more effectively on to American soil.

A model Council or Assembly thus presented can undoubtedly, with good stage management, be made to fulfil its main purpose of visualisation. In the reproduction of the sittings of the Council devoted to the Bolivia-Paraguay dispute, staged recently by the women students of two normal colleges in Maryland, the interest was well maintained, and the spectator found himself asking which way his sympathies inclined. In spite of the fact that, at first sight, the League proceedings would not seem to supply much material for dramatic representations of this kind, there are certainly possibilities in this field which could be made use of under skilful and competent guidance.

The second type of model Assembly is wholly different in character. It is a gathering in which, in the stage-setting of the League, the participants depart from the actual proceedings of Geneva and themselves indulge in debate. Assemblies of this kind may take many different forms. The " delegates " may be wholly, or largely, active nationals of the countries that they are supposed to represent ; in that case, they may express their own personal opinions or attempt to reproduce the views and arguments of their country's official representatives on the question involved. More frequently, however, the delegates, or, at least, a majority of them, are young Americans to whom this or that country has been assigned as a part. The choice of the subjects to be discussed also admits of great variety of method. Sometimes the agenda is confined to actual subjects which have been discussed at Geneva, the students preparing their speeches in the light of official documents. Sometimes prospective discussions at Geneva are anticipated and, in at least one case, matters have appeared on the agenda which had no prospect whatever of being discussed at Geneva.

It is difficult for anyone who is not accustomed to American methods of college debating to pass judgment on the combination

of acting and advocacy involved in this type of Assembly. To the European familiar with Geneva, the spectacle of an American student posing as the member of a European or Asiatic Assembly delegation and making the best case he can for the land of his sudden adoption is, to say the least, disconcerting, and he is inclined to doubt its educational value. The weight of American testimony is, however, undoubtedly on the other side ; and it may be admitted that the visualisation of the forms of a living Assembly, however unlike its prototype in substance, is a useful means of drawing attention to the League in a country far distant from Geneva, and that the speakers undoubtedly profit from their study of League documents and other literature. Certainly, the authorities of the Association's Education Committee have done their utmost to develop the educational possibilities of the movement and to prevent it from deteriorating into a misleading caricature. Whenever the Association is in a position to exercise its control, the subjects of discussion are chosen with care, any attempt to use the forms of the League for propaganda in support of other causes is checked, and the debate is concentrated on issues which have actually been dealt with at Geneva. With these necessary safeguards, the movement is likely to continue and to gather strength, at least until the word "Geneva" ceases to call up for the young American something remote and romantic in which the United States is debarred from taking her full share.

4. One other subject calls for mention : the character of the textbooks, and especially the history textbooks, used in the schools. The Sub-Committee of Experts, it will be remembered, devoted special attention to this point, urging that " incitements to hatred of the foreigner should be eliminated ". The subject is one on which American opinion has always been very sensitive. No outside authority and no national body connected with an outside authority, least of all the League of Nations, could hope to exercise an influence on the text-books used in American schools. Happily, however, no such interference would seem to be required. The influences already referred to have, it is generally admitted, had a considerable and growing effect in improving the quality of the text-books in history and related subjects ; and, what is more important, there is a tendency to allow more latitude to the teachers in the choice of the books to be used in their subject. The arrangements on this point vary greatly from State to State

and from city to city, but the definite impression derived from numerous enquiries is that, with an occasional notorious exception, the teachers have little reason to complain. The question of history text-books may therefore safely be left to the public spirit and intelligence of the organised teachers, the superintendents, the librarians and, last but not least, the historians, amongst whom not a few, including some of the most eminent, have been willing to spare the time and effort to fit their knowledge into a form adapted for use in school and college.

* * *

Exchanges of views with educators and others naturally led to numerous suggestions for practical action. A large number of these concerned possible new policies or experiments on the part of individual organisations or institutions, and these can form no part of this report. It should, however, be emphasised here that the value of a visit by a representative of the League to a distant country is not to be measured wholly, or even chiefly, by direct results in the form of official action. The indirect effects, through the numerous personal contacts established or maintained and through the free exchange of views, both in public and in private, are of even greater importance. In this connection it is, however, necessary to add that the visitor should be familiar with the domestic problems as well as the international relations of the country. This was clearly laid down by the Sub-Committee of Experts when they recommended the institution of " travelling lecturers possessing knowledge of the special conditions of the country ", and it is certainly borne out by experience in the United States. It is by giving evidence of a sympathetic understanding of national problems, traditions, policies and susceptibilities that the visitor can win the confidence necessary to permit of the free discussion of international questions and of practical proposals for dealing with them.

The proposals put forward related mainly to the second part of the Experts' terms of reference — the promotion of international co-operation through education. This was, no doubt, due in large part to the fact that the United States is not a Member of the League and that suggestions definitely relating to it would, it was felt, come ill from American educators. But it is also attributable to the deep and widespread interest taken in the United States in the development of international

co-operation and to the consequent desire of Americans to be as fully associated as possible with this phase of the League's work, which is felt to concern them even more closely and intimately than the problems of health, finance, economic policy and social welfare, with which individual and often even official Americans have been associated for some time past.

Certain specific proposals were, however, put forward in connection with the teaching of the League.

1. A desire was expressed that the League of Nations Secretariat should work out a *model syllabus* of lessons on the organisation and work of the League for use in " high schools ". It is recognised that the League of Nations could not impose such a syllabus, and indeed that any attempt to do so would be most undesirable. But it is argued that the existence of such a syllabus, worked out at Geneva and brought up to date periodically, would serve as a most valuable guide and stimulus to individual education authorities, institutions and teachers.

2. A wish was frequently expressed that the League of Nations would see its way to publishing its periodical bulletins in a form more easily utilisable by teachers. Such comments are apt to ignore the considerations associated with the production of material which has to pass the scrutiny of over fifty Governments. There are obvious difficulties in the way of rendering the *Monthly Summary* more " colourful " or in sprinkling adjectives more freely over the pages of League documents. And there are, no doubt, also corresponding advantages in supplying facilities to non-official commentators for such use as they may think fit for their respective countrymen. The suggestions range from projects for a more sparkling *Monthly Summary* to proposals for a regular League of Nations broadcasting service or a daily newspaper.

3. Librarians have repeatedly shown the greatest desire to have complete sets of all the League literature, including that of the Court, the International Labour Office and the Paris and Rome Institutes. Undoubtedly, there is a larger field for the sale of League documents in the United States than in any other country. But, as has already been said, the chief interest was shown in the second part of the Sub-Committee's terms of reference and, in this connection, the opinion was

frequently expressed that this aspect of the Sub-Committee's work was of such genuine and indeed vital interest to the American people that it would be appropriate for a citizen of the United States to sit on the Sub-Committee for this purpose.

The other proposals made can be summed up in the word " conference ". It was universally felt that the promotion of international co-operation through education had reached a stage, after a decade of individual experiments, when it was highly desirable for those engaged in them to draw closer together to consider and crystallise their common experience.

Various proposals for the composition of such conferences were put forward. In the fields of adult education and of the scientific study of international relations the machinery already exists : particular interest was manifested in the latter development, and the co-operation of the United States and of Canada in its future is assured. The idea was more than once put forward that an international conference of authorities experienced in the administration of international scholarship and fellowship schemes would be of great value. But the proposal which found most favour amongst all those with whom it was discussed was the institution of a regular international conference of educational administrators, on somewhat the same lines as the conferences of public health officials which have been so successfully developed by the Health Section of the League.

Annex I.

FOURTH NATIONAL COMPETITIVE EXAMINATION ON THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS FOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

Question Paper.

1. Set forth concisely just how and to what extent the Secretariat is responsible for whatever success the League of Nations has attained during its existence.

2. It is sometimes argued that States impair their national sovereignty in joining the League. Indicate the principal ways in which League membership does limit a Government's freedom of action. In your judgment, are these limitations necessary, or not, in the world of to-day ? Give your reasons.

3. Discuss the relations between the League, the International Labour Organisation, and the Permanent Court of International Justice. How far are they dependent upon each other, or helpful to each other ; and how far do they make up one unified system for the furtherance of peace ?

4. Discuss the interdependence of arbitration, security and disarmament, touching briefly upon the League's various efforts in this field. How do you account for the slow progress of the work of the Preparatory Commission for the Disarmament Conference ?

5. The League of Nations is generally thought of as an organisation whose main purpose is to end war. In view of this purpose, how do you justify the diffusion of its energy and the expenditure of its resources in the many and varied activities which it is carrying on in increasing number each year ? Include examples of these activities.

First Prize — A Trip to Europe.

Conditions of the Examination (Extract).

1. Students from any high school in the United States may compete.

2. Questions will be based on " A Ten-Year Review of the League of Nations ", published by the League of Nations Association. One copy of " Ten-Year Review " will be sent free of charge to each school upon receipt of official registration.

Suggested Methods of Selecting the Two National Contestants.

1. By as many students as may be desired taking the National Competitive Examination, and the teachers selecting therefrom the best two papers.

2. By local preliminary examination arranged entirely by the teacher in charge, the two winners in the preliminary examination to become the two National Contestants.

3. In cases where the above-mentioned methods are not practicable, the National Contestants might be chosen by vote of the student body or by appointment of those two students having the highest scholarship record. Teachers will naturally recognise the value, however, of arranging for study of the subject by as large a number of students as possible.

Annex II.

SECOND NATIONAL CONTEST FOR TEACHERS' COLLEGES AND NORMAL SCHOOLS.

First Prize — A Trip to Europe.

The first prize will be awarded for the best thesis on one of the following subjects :

1. Methods whereby the every-day experiences of the modern child may be used to lead him to regard co-operation rather than strife as the " normal method of conducting world affairs ".

2. Practical suggestions for instruction in the League of Nations through the teaching of geography.

3. An original story for children based on some specific incident or accomplishment of the League of Nations, or illustrating the aims and ideals of the League (mention the age range for which the story is intended).

4. Principles and ideals underlying the League of Nations, and their application ; how to present them to children under twelve.

5. How patriotism and internationalism may be reconciled in the school.

6. Disarmament ; obstacles and accomplishments.

7. Economic tendencies affecting the peace of the world ; the League's handling of economic problems.

8. The growth of international co-operation through the League of Nations.

If there are other topics in which students are particularly interested, and on which they would like to write, they may submit such topics to the Committee on Award. If approved, the desired subject may be substituted for one of the above. *Only approved topics will be accepted.*

INTERCHANGES OF TEACHERS.

British Conference.

On May 22nd, a Conference on the Interchange of Teachers was held in London at the Board of Education. The Conference was summoned by the British National Committee of Intellectual Co-operation, which had invited representatives of all the educational associations interested in the question of exchanges. The associations represented were :

American University Union ;
English Speaking Union ;
Anglo-German Academic Bureau ;
Anglo-German Academic Board ;
Office national des Universités et Ecoles françaises ;
British Federation of University Women ;
National Union of Teachers ;
Head Masters' Conference ;
Joint Committee of Secondary School Associations ;
London County Council ;
Assistant Mistresses' Association ;
Head Masters' Association ;
Head Mistresses' Association ;
Training College Association ;
Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions ;
Association of Technical Institutions ;
National Society of Art Masters ;
Educational Institute of Scotland ;
Scottish National Committee for the Training of Teachers.

The Conference was welcomed by the President of the Board of Education, Sir Charles Trevelyan, who spoke of the increasing importance and scope of the kind of interchange envisaged, of the need for a thorough examination of the possibilities by the teaching profession and of the usefulness of establishing a central organisation which would focus energies, at present rather widely dissipated.

Sir Frederic Kenyon, Chairman of the National Committee of Intellectual Co-operation, spoke of the interest of the League

of Nations in the promotion of interchange among teachers, and explained that the summoning of the Conference was inspired by the desire of the National Committee for Intellectual Co-operation to facilitate interchange, if possible, by the creation of a central organisation which, while not in any way interfering with work already effectively done by various existing organisations, would be able to co-ordinate those efforts and to represent the combined forces of the teaching profession in relation to the outside world. The Conference, he explained, was asked to consider the general exchange of teachers in schools, and was not confined to secondary teachers.

The main part of the business was the consideration of a proposal for the establishment of a central organisation to promote and co-ordinate arrangements for the exchange of teachers. The proposal was brought forward by Miss T. Bosanquet, as a member of the British National Committee, and was considered with special reference to the respective parts which could most usefully be played by the voluntary organisations, or others, already engaged in this kind of work, and by the central organisation suggested. It was agreed that the detail of the work should generally be left to the individual associations able and willing to undertake it. The selection of teachers for exchange posts involves many questions which can be dealt with far better by private voluntary organisations than by official bodies. This fact is fully recognised in Great Britain, and it was laid down from the outset that there should be no attempt to supersede work already being effectively done, or to merge the identity of the organisations already established in the central committee. At the same time, the central committee could serve as a common centre for co-ordinating the work of the individual organisations and for preventing overlapping and unnecessary multiplication of effort.

But beyond this useful function, the central committee would be able to take action for the facilitation of interchange in directions where approach by scattered groups, without any "national" character, would be difficult or perhaps impossible. There is, for example, the very urgent and serious problem of the nationality barrier set up by a number of States against the entry, even for limited periods, of foreign teachers. It is obvious that no scheme for the exchange of teachers can prosper if it is checkmated at the outset by the refusal of Governments and other authorities to permit foreign teachers to hold exchange posts in their schools. It is difficult to believe that the nations

will continue to maintain these restrictions when they are awake to the fact that they operate against their own schools by depriving them of the valuable opportunity of sending their teachers abroad for a period of work in another country. It is almost universally admitted that the main value of interchange is due to the excellent effect on the teachers who go back to their own countries with their knowledge enhanced and their international sympathies quickened. But in order to bring about a change in the attitude of Governments, a change which is essential to the progress of interchange, representations must be made more or less officially and authoritatively, international agreements must be reached, reciprocal arrangements must be made possible. It is very much easier for a central national committee to make proposals to other nations, through the Committee for Intellectual Co-operation, than for independent voluntary associations to make their voices heard.

It is desirable, too, for Great Britain to establish some sort of really representative body which will negotiate on broad lines with the institutions of other nations. The schools of other countries are chiefly State schools, and States find it difficult to enter into negotiations with unofficial bodies. In setting up a national committee, Great Britain will have the appropriate organ for communicating with the educational bureaux established by other nations. The position of British schools, so very different from the position of the schools of many other countries, makes it essential that this central committee should represent the teachers and teaching organisations, and the Conference of May 22nd was called expressly to consult their wishes.

The proposal for a central committee was discussed at length, the majority of representatives being warmly in favour of the scheme. Suggestions were made for the addition of representatives of education authorities to the committee and for the extension of the field of the committee's work to include university teachers, but a precise definition of the functions of the committee and a consideration of the bodies to be represented on it were points referred to a small committee appointed by the Conference to investigate the question and to report at a later meeting.

The following resolution was passed by a large majority, with only one dissentient.

" In view of the importance of developing the exchange of teachers between the United Kingdom and foreign countries and in order to secure co-ordination and prevent waste of effort, it is desirable to establish a central organisation representative of teachers' associations and other bodies interested to promote and co-ordinate arrangements for such exchanges. "

In the January issue, attention was drawn to the new methods that are being adopted by different institutions concerned with the study of international relations. The following two articles deal with the work of a group of these institutions and, in particular, with that of the Institute of Pacific Relations at Honolulu which has been specially active in this field. — *Editor*.

INTERNATIONAL COLLABORATION IN THE STUDY OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

by J. B. CONDLIFFE,

Research Secretary, Institute of Pacific Relations.

There are certain assumptions behind the argument of the following article, which need only to be stated very briefly. There is first taken for granted the thesis put forward by M. Zimmern's admirable paper entitled " Learning and Leadership ". Easier communications, a greater degree of economic interdependence and the vastly more serious character and consequences of modern warfare have made it necessary to strengthen and extend the recent beginnings of international law and Governmental co-operation. In order that any such extension shall be securely based on sound principles, one should examine the essential basis of popular government. This is a task for scholarship as much as statesmanship.

The preceding statement makes clear a second assumption — that the modern world is committed to the principle of popular government. It is this fact which most complicates the transition from national economy and national politics to international co-operation. The analogy has many times been presented of the transition from local and sectional government to national institutions which ushered in the modern age. But the transition to international institutions is more difficult because of the larger units involved, the greater heterogeneity of peoples, the complexity of the issues, and the very success with which the earlier transition to nationalism was achieved. It is further complicated by the 19th century phenomenon of democratic control over Governmental politics.

In most countries, the transition from local to national institutions was accomplished by struggle and compromise between ruling groups. The allegiance of the common people

was transferred from one set of rulers to another. The rapid transformation of modern Japan, which has recapitulated this experience within living memory, provides an interesting illustration of this fact. When, after civil war and revolution, the Meiji dynasty was restored in 1868 to the realities of power, it proceeded to build up national institutions by restricting, and even destroying, the power of the feudal lords. In many cases, however, the clansmen sent petitions to the Emperor, protesting against the change and begging to be allowed to keep their traditional relationship to their *daimyos*.

Even in Japan, the advent of factory machine methods of industry has struck a final blow at such methods of governance. In every modern country, the industrial revolution has destroyed or profoundly modified the former social groupings and upset the equilibrium of established government. Where the ruling classes comprised and assisted in the establishment of democratic institutions soundly based on popular education and free discussion, the transition was peaceful. Wherever determined efforts were made to preserve the existing regime, the result was revolution. It is now a truism that national government rests upon the popular will. It follows obviously that there must be devices for ascertaining, expressing and educating the popular will. Party and sectional organisations, journalistic and public discussion and parliamentary debate are devices common to most countries. Broadly speaking, it is true to say that no great matter of public policy comes to decision without at least the opportunity for thorough public discussion. Not only is the proposal examined in all its bearings upon different interests, and the will of the people upon it made clear ; but, in the course of the discussion, it is clarified, details are worked out, and adaptations made to suit practical conditions. Not the least important aspect of this preliminary discussion is the educative and preparatory effect it has upon the minds of those most concerned.

Popular control over international, as distinct from national, policy has lagged behind. Long after parliamentary control, preceded by popular discussion, had been successfully asserted over domestic affairs, foreign relations continued to be conducted almost as if they were the private concerns of small ruling groups in each country. In the meanwhile, the machine methods and large-scale organisation typical of the industrial revolution had been increasingly extended to commerce as well as manufacture. The whole modern world was becoming knit into economic unity by the railway and the steamship. Interdependence

became more and more pronounced, and, after the event, it seems obvious that the survival under such conditions of the earlier systems of diplomacy was bound to result in the cataclysm of war. It was a general if dim realisation of this fact which lay behind the popular demand for a League of Peoples rather than a League of Nations. What touches all must be approved by all.

While popular control of anything but the broadest aspects of policy is even more impossible in international than it is in national affairs, there remains a substantial truth in the idea that post-war diplomacy must strive to base itself more firmly upon the popular will, and must also contrive in some way to carry popular opinion along with the negotiated compromises of experts and statesmen. It would be superfluous to do more than mention the excellent beginnings that have been made at Geneva towards the establishment of political institutions for international co-operation. It is well to remind ourselves, however, that it is unlikely that these institutions could have come into being if it had not been for the preceding half-century of discussion among international lawyers and statesmen and for the network of treaty commitments by which the states-men had bound themselves and accustomed their nationals to the rule of law in international affairs. Nor could they have extended and consolidated their functions as rapidly as they have done if there had not been the consistent effort of many private citizens in every land to explain and support their activities and explore the possibilities of their extension.

It is not without significance that two of the institutions for the scientific study of international affairs to which reference has been made had their birth in informal meetings among the British and American experts who were in attendance upon the statesmen who were drawing up the Treaty of Versailles. The British (now the Royal) Institute of International Affairs and the Council on Foreign Relations of New York were formed to continue in their respective countries the valuable methods of discussion and research that had been worked out at Versailles. In those discussions, for the first time, expert knowledge had come into its own in international affairs. The work of the historian, geographer, economist and not less of those social scientists whose special field of study is public opinion, was recognised as important for the purposes of national statecraft. What is more important, these experts, having naturally sought co-operation from their fellows in other countries, were impressed

with the importance and the possibilities of further co-operation, not so much in a effort to gain national advantage or even in the negative effort to prevent war, but still more in the positive extension of international co-operation for mutual advantage.

Since the formation of these bodies, there has been a distinct tendency to multiply the institutions engaged in studying international problems. Many of these indeed go back to the pre-war period. The Inter-Parliamentary Union held its twenty-fifth Conference in 1928. The Labour and Socialist Internationals have a much longer history, and there are many other technical or sectional organisations which met regularly in the pre-war period. In every case, however, these bodies worked under self-imposed limitations, and few of them based their discussions upon scientific research in anything approaching the sense in which that term is used by scientists. For the most part, their meetings were given over to the exchange of speeches or papers, supplemented by personal acquaintance. In some cases, co-operating commissions were appointed to explore a given subject further between conferences, but investigations of this description lacked the continuity and precision of scientific method. Within their limited resources and objectives, such international meetings attained valuable results ; but they can hardly qualify as institutions for the scientific study of international affairs.

At this point, it might serve a useful purpose to refer to the exposition of international co-operation in the natural sciences which provided the theme of Sir Ernest Rutherford's presidential address to the British Association in 1923. He compared the way in which individual workers in various countries worked consistently at the drudgery of measurement and analysis with the methods of trench warfare. After long periods of digging in, he pointed out, some flash of insight or brilliant synthesis, the culmination of sustained effort by the individual concerned using the freely exchanged results of the whole scientific world, made possible an advance along the entire front. The discoveries which made possible such advances came sometimes from Paris, sometimes from Moscow, sometimes from Cambridge, Chicago or any one of many centres of research. But wherever they came from, they were immediately available to all scientific workers everywhere, were tested and established and made the basis for further detailed work. In such international co-operation, the natural sciences have great advantages over the social sciences which are beginning to approach the

problems of international relations, but the social scientists can obviously learn a great deal from the methods established by their more experienced colleagues.

The most significant developments in the study of international relations have undoubtedly come from those institutions which, without abandoning the method of discussion, have supplemented it with research in the scientific sense of the word. For illustrative purposes mention is only made here of the methods followed by the institutions with which the writer is, in some degree, personally familiar — namely, the Royal Institute of International Affairs, the Council on Foreign Relations, and the Institute of Pacific Relations. No attempt is made to discuss the many institutes of international relations which in America have been modelled upon the success of the pioneer venture at Williamstown. Such institutes are necessarily restricted in two directions. They are primarily national and educational. The more successful of them, and notably the Williamstown Institute, have at times become truly international : first, because the discussions have been carried on by important personalities representing more than one national point of view, and, secondly, because some of the lecture courses given and afterwards published have been important means for the presentation of foreign points of view to the American people. But they have not been supplemented by a continuous programme of research collaboration, nor has the process of discussion and education been mutual. They are essentially institutions for the education of the American public.

The same national limitation of scope is apparent in different ways in the Royal Institute of International Affairs and the Council on Foreign Relations. The membership of both bodies is confined to nationals, and the discussions and research work undertaken, while scientific in conception and execution, necessarily concern themselves with a national approach to international problems. Advantage is occasionally taken of hearing from foreign visitors, and foreign publications are collected and studied, but there is no effort as yet to get into direct touch with foreign opinion in personal, face-to-face discussion.

The devices used by these bodies are very similar. The Royal Institute follows the British tradition in centring its activities in an institution which combines the advantages of a study and a club ; the headquarters of the Council on Foreign Relations is distinctly an office. But both use group-meetings

for the continuous discussion of specific sets of problems, both issue regular annual surveys of international policy, besides occasional publications embodying the results of group-discussion and research, both employ a fairly considerable permanent staff and issue a regular journal. Neither as yet has developed methods of direct collaboration in studies on a given subject with other similar institutions. There is developing a good deal of co-operation in the sense of exhange of publications, personal correspondence and visits, supplemented by reciprocity in assistance given to visiting students.

Except for the co-operation of the Royal Institute in the discussions and research programme of the Institute of Pacific Relations, the chief lessons to be learned from the activities of these bodies are to be gained from a study of the devices used for collaboration within one national unit. The Institute of Pacific Relations has drawn heavily upon their experience and also upon the experience of such bodies as the Williamstown Institute and the earlier Round-Table movement.

The unique feature of the Institute of Pacific Relations lies in the fact that it is a federation of such national units as the Royal Institute of International Affairs. It has a skeleton central organisation with headquarters at Honolulu, but its life is derived from its constituent units in the United States of America, Canada, Great Britain, Australia, New Zealand, China and Japan. Correspondence is maintained with groups of interested individuals in Paris, Moscow, Batavia and Mexico City, and it is probable that, as time goes on, national units will be constituted in those countries. The present organisation is on a national basis, but provision is made for independent groups working with the assent of the national councils of their sovereign countries in such local units as Hawaii and the Philippines. Similar groups are likely to be formed in Fiji, Chosen and Borneo, mainly for participation in the biennial conferences and in the research programme, without the privilege of nominating a member of the governing Pacific Council.

All of these units are autonomous. All work within their own constituencies by their own methods and there is no attempt to achieve a uniform method of organisation. All the groups contribute as they can towards the expenses of the central organisation and all are fully self-supporting in regard to their national expenses. The largest proportion of the central funds and the whole of the international research fund come from American sources, but the research fund is wholly used in making

grants to university or other research bodies in the various countries upon the general condition that these grants are matched by contributions from local sources.

The Institute throughout is private and unofficial. No part of its funds and none of its officers are connected with any Government. The only approach to Governmental co-operation is the liaison maintained with the Secretariat staffs of the League of Nations and the International Labour Office.

The following article is contributed by a member of the Secretariat of the League of Nations who took part in the Conference of the Institute of Pacific Relations at Kyoto in November last.

METHODS OF INTERNATIONAL DISCUSSION AT THE INSTITUTE OF PACIFIC RELATIONS.

The Institute of Pacific Relations, to which reference has been made in previous issues of the *Educational Survey*, represents a new development in the study and discussion of international affairs ; its methods, though they have been practised in national fields, are probably unique in their international application. There is a growing number of students' organisations, with a combination of lectures and seminars, almost wholly educational in character and of value not only in the spread of knowledge, but also in the development of an attitude of mind towards such knowledge. The Institute of Pacific Relations has these characteristics too ; its main difference lies in the fact that it is composed of mature men of affairs, and it is the employment by such men of a system generally considered appropriate mainly for younger students which distinguishes the Institute from most, if not all, other international organisations.

The experiment, which started in 1925, has shown the worth of approaching problems internationally and collectively with a student's mind. Polemics and perorations have no place in the system. Generalities have to stand the test of intimate and detailed examination. The honest search for the core of a problem cannot be usefully pursued in an atmosphere of passion.

National prejudices are exposed to the touchstone of realities, and a disciplined tone and temper are normally necessary if there are to be frank exchanges of opinions and free presentation of facts. It would be absurd to pretend that the conferences of the Institute have been cold, grey, passionless things ; they have been nothing of the kind. But, with the set purpose of defining a problem as objectively as possible on the facts and the psychology, there is a foundation of tolerance and sobriety that governs the spirit of the proceedings. There is a positive effort of intellectual self-control which alone makes the system possible, and, if a flash of anger sharpens a discussion, it is momentary and generally enlightening ; it is and must be kept within the limits set. This requires a careful choice of personnel during the experimental stage ; some kind of tradition is necessary, and the Institute has been fortunate in the men who have been forming it. It is early to say how widely it will permeate political and economic thought in the Pacific area ; the degree of its influence depends ultimately on the responsibility of those who actively participate, and on their authority at home. The Institute is non-official and does not admit members of Governments or Government officials. This gives it the absolute freedom which it could not otherwise have. Not only is it non-official, but its constituent national groups do not represent any definite group policy. Its conferences are conferences of individuals — specialists, politicians, lawyers, professors, students and journalists — responsible to none but themselves and to the general purpose of the organisation, which is the discovery of basic facts through free exchange of ideas with a view to the improvement of mutual relations.

The Institute represents a way of approaching problems as the preliminary to the satisfactory solution of them. Itself it seeks no solutions ; it spends no time elaborating formulæ which all may accept ; it passes no resolutions and takes no decisions. It hunts out the facts, explores the psychology, talks about them, and lets the leaven work as it will. Before a question can be settled it must be defined. To a precise and logical mind the method may seem ineffectual, and it was not surprising that a Latin observer at Kyoto confessed his complete bewilderment at a conference which reached no conclusions. But as a regional political and economic laboratory there can be no question that the Institute is following hopeful lines that might usefully be applied to other quarters of the globe. There is nothing exactly comparable with it, even amongst the self-

governing States of the British Commonwealth, which, although it has its official and unofficial conferences, has no organised and continuous study and exchange of ideas upon common problems.

The Institute has a small central secretariat of four or five nationalities established at Honolulu, and the constituent parts of the Institute are national groups in Australia, Canada, China, Great Britain, Japan, New Zealand and the United States ; there are adhering groups in Korea and the Philippines. There will probably be extension in the future by the inclusion of the Dutch East Indies, France, and possibly Russia. These additional countries, and Mexico, were represented by individual observers at the third Conference of the Institute held in Kyoto in the autumn of last year, and the League of Nations and the International Labour Organisation were also represented by observers in conformity with both League and Institute policy of collaboration with all appropriate international effort. There has been a mistaken tendency in some quarters to compare the Institute with the League, but their composition and functions are obviously different. The League is a society of States represented by responsible Government delegates, taking responsible decisions. It is the central means of definite, official, interstate action. The Institute is one of the many unofficial elements which go to form opinion upon which Government action largely depends. The organisation of the Institute is governed by a Council composed of one representative appointed by each of the affiliated national Councils, which are autonomous in their own areas, and side by side with the Council is an international Research Committee, also composed of representatives from the national groups. In some countries, groups have been organised for the purpose, and in other countries existing institutions assumed the task ; for example, a section of the Royal Institute of International Affairs constitutes the British group.

The programmes of research and discussion are drawn up after consultation between the groups ; the biennial conferences generally supply the necessary indications. Last year at Kyoto there was a great deal of valuable documentation at the disposal of the groups, but it was too voluminous to form more than a very general basis of discussion. It is the work of individuals belonging to the different groups, which means that, while most of it is done in the true spirit of research, it nevertheless contains much that represents points of view. There is little,

if any, central documentation prepared or collated by the headquarters of the Institute in the way that, for example, is done by the League of Nations Secretariat at Geneva. This collection of material, prepared from many angles and at the disposal of all the members, gives a lively record of the different aspects of the problems under consideration ; and it is of real utility. The proceedings of the Conference are fully and admirably surveyed by the Research Secretary.

It is the conference method itself which is of main interest. It begins with statements from each of the national groups, after which it breaks up into a series of round tables under a leader for informal discussion of the subjects agreed upon. These general opening statements are the only expressions which represent a national group view, for not only does the Institute itself eschew the advocacy of any particular policy, but the national groups also are designed not to represent any precise corporate view. Several groups at Kyoto, as at Honolulu in 1927, included individuals from all political parties, who took whatever attitude they liked. Four round tables of twenty or thirty people may discuss simultaneously one subject, and different members of one group may express different views at each of the meetings. It would not be surprising, for example, if the Conservative ex-Lord Chancellor of Great Britain (who led the British group at Kyoto) were found to expound one theory at one meeting, and the son of the British Labour Prime Minister a different theory at another meeting. A member of the Japanese House of Peers and the leader of the Japanese Labour Party might conceivably be in similar disaccord. This is exactly what is welcomed ; one of the complaints at Honolulu was that too many of the members were of the same way of thinking ; there was not enough clash of opinion and not enough representation of some obvious political tendencies. It was considered unfortunate, for instance, that there was so large a proportion of the big United States group not unsympathetic to the League of Nations. The Institute aims at what the Americans call cross-sections of thought, and this gives a microcosm of national outlook.

Polemics are not normally indulged in. It is inevitable that on some questions there is strong national feeling and obstinate adherence to mistaken notions based, not on accurate acquaintance with the subject, but on emotional tendencies arising out of some particular national experiences, but generally there is a serious effort to discover the real facts and, what is

equally important, to understand the real psychology. Kyoto demonstrated emphatically that mere knowledge is incomplete without appreciation of the underlying psychological elements at work. The acquisition of knowledge is but half the task.

The Institute makes a deliberate endeavour to keep discussion on an unimpassioned basis, and Kyoto was a severe test from which it creditably emerged. There were some anxious moments. The programme contained a study of the situation in Manchuria, of the so-called "unequal treaties", of extra-territoriality, and of settlements and concessions — all subjects of acute controversy. Even the relatively secondary questions like diplomatic relations in the Pacific, population, food, industrialisation, and finance were highly controversial, and they were probed on or near the spot where the problems mainly existed. The Executive Council's preoccupations were manifest in its decision to give the first three days to an examination of the influence of the machine age on traditional culture, so that the members might have an opportunity of settling down before more delicate subjects were broached. It was a superficial discussion, and it swallowed up precious time, but whether or not the precaution was needed, the Conference proceeded without serious incident, and it says much for the patience and self-control of some of the more closely interested groups that the end was friendlier than the beginning. There was no mincing of words, but no loss of temper. The Institute has learnt not to flinch, and it has shown that this lesson can be learnt on the most difficult texts.

The difficulty with such a conference is to know where to strike the balance between the specialists and other elements of public life. At Kyoto, amongst the 218 actual members, there were 72 professors of various subjects (international law, international relations, economics, etc.), 44 business men of whom 11 were bankers, 18 journalists, 8 lawyers, 17 religious workers, 4 labour leaders, and 25 representatives of various societies. The Hon. F. W. Eggleston led the Australian group ; Lord Hailsham, the Lord Chancellor in the last Conservative Administration, led the British group ; the Hon. Newton Rowell, who was a delegate to the first League Assembly, led the Canadian group ; Dr. Yui led the Chinese group, which comprised individuals from a number of the leading cities and districts ; the Japanese group, under Dr. Nitobe, former Under-Secretary-General of the League of Nations Secretariat, was as strong and as representative as it could possibly be outside official repre-

sentation, including men of authority in all ranks of life. The New Zealand group was led by Mr. W. B. Matthews, who was a representative at the meetings of the International Agricultural Institute in Rome, and the Chairman of the United States group of 45 was Mr. Jerome D. Greene, a banker. Few, outside the Chinese and Japanese groups, were informed on the multiplicity of the problems in Manchuria (there was more knowledge on the other questions concerning China), and only a rather small circle of experts were competent to speak on special matters such as population, food, finance and industrialisation. One of the results was that, on Manchuria and several other questions, the bulk of the members formed an inquisitive audience rather than participating students ; this detracted from the completeness of the discussions, but it could scarcely be avoided. The conference method has not been perfected, and the Executive keeps a constant eye on possibilities of improvement.

The educative value of the meeting was beyond cavil. None present could have failed to gain much from the data, the discussions, and the personal contacts. The wider educative value is not so easy to assess. The central aim is the improvement of the mutual relations of the peoples in the Pacific, and the measure of this is to a great extent the responsibility and authority of those who take part, the influence which they can bring upon the temper and thought of people in their own lands, and the accuracy of their individual diagnosis. A handful only of such members can do a great deal, and they have, in fact, done so by getting into subsequent contact with authority ; one or two previous members, like the present Japanese Minister of Finance and the present Minister of the Interior in the United States of America, were active promoters of the Institute before Government office disqualified them. It is important, above all, that Governments should understand and that leadership should be combined with knowledge, but it is not sufficient without an informed body of opinion in the countries. The method of the Institute precludes great conferences ; round table discussion, with the intimacy and personal relations which make it profitable, cannot resemble large public meetings ; actual participation must always be limited. Some considered the 200 members at Kyoto too numerous for thorough work, which is of a kind that cannot be done on mass-production principles. For this sort of effort, therefore, to succeed in the largest possible measure, members must be chosen with the

greatest care, due regard being paid both to their individual competence and to their place in the body politic at home.

The Institute's approach to the new and difficult problems of our time merits the close attention of men of sense and initiative everywhere. Why should the experiment be confined to the Pacific area, and why should the serious study of affairs be left only to the specialists ? Why should not men of affairs do a little thinking on their own account ?

PART II.

How to make the League of Nations known and to develop a Spirit of International Co-operation.

REPORTS FROM INDIVIDUAL COUNTRIES.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS TEACHING IN AUSTRALIA

Certain outstanding facts should be kept in mind when considering what is being done in Australia " to familiarise young people with the principles and work of the League of Nations and to train them to regard co-operation as the normal method of conducting world affairs ". The first of these facts is that Australia as a nation is still very young. Only in 1901 was the federation of the States achieved ; even now politics revolve considerably round the problem of division of authority as between Commonwealth and States. Not until 1914 did Australia as a nation launch on any great world political enterprise. Before that a national consciousness scarcely existed. Moreover, since the close of the great war, the task of nation-building has tended towards preoccupation with internal affairs. Problems of land settlement, agricultural development, and the building-up of secondary industries, inevitably occupy much attention.

The second outstanding consideration is that Australia is extremely remote geographically from the main centres of world politics. Visits from great world-leaders are infrequent. Moreover, we have no traditional enemies, no frontiers that have been drenched in blood, no problem of a mixed population, no problem of minorities. Extra effort is therefore required to inculcate the fact that we belong to an international community.

A further consideration has a very direct bearing on the subject. Racially the people of this country are almost entirely British : ties of kinship and tradition bind Australia with Great Britain to an extent that no Constitution can ever do. Politically, moreover, Australia has been one of the main experimental grounds for liberal British policy. It is therefore natural and inevitable that interest in the League of Nations should develop on the basis of the most liberal traditions of the British Commonwealth of Nations.

In view of the foregoing considerations, the results already achieved in regard to teaching concerning the League are sufficiently important to be remarkable. They are certainly a happy augury for the future, since they evidence the fact that

leaders of the nation are quickly becoming more vitally interested in international developments. This result is largely due to the local efforts of both official and voluntary organisations; accordingly, a brief survey will be given of what is being done by each of these sections of the community.

Universities.

Compared with some other countries, relatively little has been done by Australian universities to create interest in international relations. The development of Dominion status naturally attracts a fair amount of interest, but, on the whole, teaching concerning the League of Nations must be considered incidental rather than systematic and comprehensive. At no university is there a chair of international relations. Resolutions have been passed at a few meetings of some organisations drawing attention to the need for chairs of this nature, and the Advisory Committee recently established in New South Wales has been asked to give particular attention to the matter.

In most of the universities, increasing emphasis on the origin and work of the League is noticeable in courses in modern history. At Perth University the subject of the League forms a special section of one history course, which is also compulsory for all law students. At Sydney University special provision is made in the European history course. In Part I of this course, the approach is political, dealing with European post-war events : in Part II, the approach is more from the legal standpoint, special attention being given to the question of international arbitration. These courses are taken respectively by all second and third-year history students. The most important development has taken place at Melbourne University, where more intensive teaching about the League is introduced into the course of lectures on modern political institutions. This course has been established for some years, though it is only recently that the origin and development of the League have been particularly emphasised. The course is compulsory not only for arts students in history but also for law students.

In certain sections more definite provision has been made in syllabuses. A Chair in International Law was founded at the University of Sydney some years ago and public international law is a compulsory subject for graduation in the School of Law. Law students thus gain detailed information regarding legal

aspects of international relations, and particularly about the Permanent Court of International Justice. Other States make provision for lectureships on this subject.

One recent development is worthy of special notice, namely, the establishment in 1926, by the Commonwealth Government of a Chair of Anthropology at the University of Sydney. One of the main reasons urged in support of this move was the need to train competent persons for service in the administration of the Australian mandated territory. Special arrangements are made for the training of cadets of the Department of Home and Territories. Provision is also made for an intensive course for officials of New Guinea, Papua and the Western Pacific. There are already first signs that this long-sighted policy in establishing a chair in anthropology is beginning to bear fruit.

Somewhat more systematic attention to the study of international affairs has been given by University Extension Boards. In conjunction with Workers' Educational Associations, a moderate number of tutorial classes in international relations have been organised. In a few instances these classes have worked to a definite three-year programme. In 1927, the Sydney University Extension Board organised a series of public lectures by Professor George H. Blakeslee, of the Chair of History and International Relations, Clark University, Massachusetts.

The distance from important world educational centres does not easily permit many scholars to study in other countries. Those who do so usually favour English Universities, particularly Oxford, Cambridge, and London. The French Government scholarship scheme at the University of Sydney enables a few to continue studies at the Sorbonne, and a few other students find their way to American and German universities. Facilities for continuing studies at overseas universities are provided for graduates in the form of free return steamship passages under the joint scheme of the Orient Mail Line, the P. & O. Steam Navigation Company, the Aberdeen Line and the Blue Funnel Line.

Official Activities.

To estimate the importance of what has been done by official educational institutions in Australia, certain local conditions should be kept in mind. Jurisdiction in educational

matters is vested not in the Commonwealth, but in the several States. Moreover, as the distances between the capital cities are great and the States are more or less jealous of their authority, co-ordination of effort is not always easily achieved. Perhaps this is one reason why an Australian Committee for Intellectual Co-operation has not yet been organised. In 1925, the late Sir George Knibbs was appointed to act as a link with the work of the League of Nations Committee for Intellectual Co-operation, but since his death a few years ago no public action has been taken. Consideration was given by the Federal Government to the possibility of forming a Committee consisting of representatives of the universities, but difficulties were encountered in this direction, and the matter is once again being considered by the Commonwealth Government. The delay in arranging for a representative national committee to function serves to emphasise the fact that there exist six separate and independent State Departments of Public Instruction. From this it may be inferred that action taken in any one State is not necessarily true of another State. In preparing this survey, however, care has been taken to mention activities that are more or less typical : where this is not the case, special mention is made.

If co-ordination of activities as between the several States is not easy, nevertheless, within each State, organisation is thorough. Education is not only free, but also compulsory and non-sectarian. All children between the ages of seven and fourteen years must attend a State or certified school. The great majority of the pupils pass through State schools. In New South Wales, the percentage in 1928 was 80.5 and in most of the other States the percentage is approximately the same. Thus, the activities of the State Departments must be regarded as the key to the teaching of children.

Before detailing specific activities regarding teaching about the League, it may be interesting to note that, for some time, definite efforts have been made by the Departments to prevent teaching aimed against any nation. In 1920, this sentence appeared in the notes on the course of history and civics issued for elementary schools in Victoria :

> " The sense of a greater human brotherhood and of an obligation to our fellow that transcends all mere geographical boundaries has developed out of this great conflict (the war of 1914-1918), and the school, both in its regular

lessons and in its corporate life, may do much more to deepen and strengthen this bond of human fellowship."

In the course of instruction for primary schools issued in 1925 by the Minister for Education in New South Wales, teachers are enjoined to give " special attention to the history of Australia and the British Commonwealth " ; but also to have " regard for history other than English or Imperial, the object being to broaden the outlook of the pupils, and to encourage respect for the point of view of other races than our own ".

Amongst the principles of teaching it is stated :

> " The teacher must have knowledge, breadth of outlook, a sympathetic and tolerant spirit. Thus equipped, he will be free from national egotism, regarding history, not as the story of a peculiar people, but rather the story of the human race."

Recent instructions in connection with the commemoration of special " days " state :

> " Anzac Day is peculiarly Australia's day, and will be best commemorated by some act of social service rendered individually, or by the school community."

> " The speeches (on Empire Day) should be characterised by moderation and self-restraint. Comparisons with other races should not be made in a spirit of depreciation, but rather as seeking in a generous spirit to acknowledge their worth and significance in the world's life, and with hopes for the time :

> " When man to man, the world o'er,
> Shall brothers be for a' that."

Commendable and far-sighted as these injunctions are, they are also indirect evidence that disproportionate emphasis has sometimes been placed on imperialistic sentiments.

Primary Schools.

For reasons set out at the beginning of this survey, specific teaching about the League was not started in some sections as early as in a number of other countries. This applies more particularly to pupils of primary schools. One Australian educational leader has even suggested that the teaching in the

primary schools is necessarily indirect, since " primary pupils are not capable of understanding the principles underlying the League of Nations ".

As against this point of view, the Department of Education in New South Wales, a few years ago, provided for school libraries 1,500 copies of " The Fight for Peace ", by Hebe SPAULL. From time to time articles have also appeared in the *School Magazine* for fifth and sixth class pupils. Thus, in 1927 appeared four simple accounts of the League — the story of its formation, aim and work ; in 1928, " The League of Nations and Slavery " ; and, in 1929, two accounts of the International Labour Office.

In all the other States somewhat similar use has been made of school magazines. In Victoria, articles have appeared regularly in the school paper regarding the children of other lands, all designed to bring about a desire for friendly relations. The November Armistice number is now the " peace number ". The Education Department has announced that it intends in future to insert a section in the school paper on international affairs, and that it will welcome information about the League. This is a very important move, owing to the wide circulation of the paper.

In 1927, the Victorian Minister of Public Instruction stated:

> " It has been considered more important to bring about a desire for friendly relations between nations than merely to give facts about the League. The machinery of the League might fail, but, if the underlying ideal is inculcated in the minds of the young, a better and more lasting scheme of international relationship will succeed."

The foregoing idea has been kept well in mind by the official correspondence school of New South Wales in connection with the issue of an *International News Sheet* started last year. This sheet is sent out every month to some thousand boys and girls, whose homes are too far removed from schools to allow regular attendance. It is also sent to children living in lighthouses that are remote from schools, and to children in some of the Pacific islands. By this means it is hoped to stimulate interest in the life of children of other countries.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

Much more systematic efforts have been made by the Departments of Education in connection with secondary

schools. The New South Wales syllabus issued in 1925 for first- to fifth-year history students includes for study "The War, the Peace, and the New World : The League of Nations and its Endeavour to Prevent War ". Special books prescribed for reference include " What the League of Nations is ", by H. Wilson HARRIS, and " Australia and the League of Nations ", by A. D. ELLIS. For students in fourth and fifth years, additional books recommended are " The League of Nations To-day " and " The League, the Protocol, and the Empire ", by Roth WILLIAMS. Various questions relating to these subjects have been set for examination purposes. In 1929, questions on the period from 1914 onwards were excluded, for the reason that, in the opinion of the examiners, insufficient attention was being given by students to the period before 1914.

In South Australia, the course of study for fifth-year honours students in history mentions the development of nationalism during the nineteenth century and asks the question : " Is nationalism a sufficient basis for world organisation ? " Books prescribed for reference include the above-mentioned ones by Wilson Harris and A. D. Ellis.

In Victoria, " Australia and the League of Nations " is regularly studied in post-primary schools and a portion of this book is prescribed for scholarship and public examinations. Three editions of this book have now been published, totalling 14,000 copies. In Western Australia, suitable text-books have been suggested, and also specimen lessons provided, for teachers.

In non-departmental secondary schools, relatively little is being done beyond what may be required for certain examination purposes. In a few instances speakers have been requested to deal with the subject of the League on Armistice and other " days ".

TEACHERS' TRAINING COLLEGES.

If the key to education in Australia is to be found in the State Departments of Public Instruction, the official Training Colleges for Teachers must be regarded as the strategic centres for developing most quickly interest in international affairs. Since almost all teachers in the Department pass through these colleges, any training given to them is specially significant. Obviously, it is the new generation of teachers that is more

likely to arrive at an impartial estimate of the new world-order being developed. From the time the League of Nations came into existence, all second-year students in the Teachers' Training College, New South Wales, have been required to study its aims and work. The lecturers, being highly-trained specialists, are allowed, of course, to present the subject-matter in their own way. Questions set for examinations have related to the aims of the League, its organisation, and achievements. Some 325 copies of " The League of Nations at Work ", by Professor P. Noel BAKER, were supplied in 1928 to second-year students, and an essay was set directly on this book. Other books recommended for reference include " Australia and the League of Nations " (ELLIS) and " International Civics " (MOON).

Referring to the question of the training of teachers, one of the lecturers recently remarked :

> " I have always derived some satisfaction from the fact that we have borne faithful witness to the League and its work with prospective teachers for so many years."

The increasing demand by teachers for impartial information about the League seems to indicate that the harvest of this " faithful witnessing " is already being reaped.

In Victoria, a study-circle was held in the Teachers' Training College in 1927. Students of the primary course in this college deal with the League as part of the course in modern political institutions, and second-year history students also study directly its aims and work. In Western Australia, a special course is now given at the Teachers' Training College ; one of the text-books used is " From Paris to Locarno and After ", by F. ALEXANDER.

STANDING COMMITTEES.

In spite of the fact that there is no committee for intellectual co-operation active in Australia, definite steps have been taken in some of the States to form committees of representative educationalists for the special purpose of dealing more effectively with the question of teaching regarding the League. A conference of teachers was held in Victoria in 1927 to constitute a standing committee to deal with this question. This body did not prove on the whole very active. In 1927, however,

the Council of Public Education of Victoria forwarded to the State Department the following resolution :

> " In view of the importance of the League of Nations as the great hope of the world for ending war and realising the ideal of human brotherhood, it is desirable to enlist the enthusiastic support of the younger generation in the work and aims of the League. The Council therefore recommends that opportunity should often be taken to interest the pupils of our schools in the doings of the League of Nations, and suggests as means to this end the giving of addresses from time to time to the boys and girls, well-informed articles in the school paper, and the offer of prizes for essays on the League."

Some of the activities along the above-mentioned lines have already been detailed.

In Western Australia, conferences of representative educationalists were convened early in 1929 by the Minister for Education. The following resolution was moved by the Minister and carried unanimously :

> " It is desirable that the younger generation should gain some knowledge of the aims of the League of Nations, its methods of working, and its accomplishments."

The Conference also expressed the opinion that definite instruction should be given to children in the higher classes in the primary schools, but that such instruction should not be too detailed in character. In regard to the secondary schools it was stated " no satisfactory course in history can be given that does not include teaching on the subject of the League".

In New South Wales, no definite steps were taken to form a standing committee until September 1929, when the Minister for Education convened a conference, presided over by the Vice-Chancellor of the University. The result, however, was the most representative gathering of educational authorities ever held in New South Wales. All educational sections of the community, including the University, the Department of Education, Teachers' Training College, greater Public Schools, Catholic Schools, and Theological Colleges, were represented by their official heads. Resolutions were passed, pledging a wholehearted furtherance of the aims and objects of the League and calling for better co-ordination between official and

non-official efforts in this direction. The following resolution was also enthusiastically adopted :

" That a Permanent Advisory Committee be appointed from this Conference :

" (*a*) To consider in detail the methods at present adopted of teaching the aims and work of the League ;

" (*b*) To formulate, if necessary, proposals and to suggest improved methods to the various educational authorities represented at this Conference ;

" (*c*) That such Committee consist of the Minister for Education (Chairman), the President, League of Nations Union, New South Wales Branch, and one representative each of :

(1) Department of Education ;
(2) University of Sydney ;
(3) New South Wales Public School Teachers' Federation ;
(4) Catholic Schools ;
(5) Other non-departmental schools ;

and such other members as such Committee may deem desirable to co-opt ;

" (*d*) That the General Secretary of the League of Nations Union (New South Wales Branch) be appointed Convener and Honorary Secretary to the Committee."

For distribution amongst teachers and other interested persons, 4,000 copies of the proceedings of the above-mentioned Conference were supplied by the Minister for Education.

At the first meeting of the Permanent Advisory Committee other representative educational leaders were co-opted, and it was decided to make a detailed survey of the present position before venturing to make recommendations to the authorities represented at the Conference. With this end in view, individual members were commissioned to prepare for consideration reports on the adequacy, or otherwise, of (*a*) history text-books, and (*b*) syllabus instructions. These reports have been prepared and will be considered at the next meeting of the Committee, when its future programme will also be mapped out.

In Tasmania, steps are being taken to form an equally representative committee. In view of what has been done in most of the States, the time is now considered ripe for endeavouring

to form a representative national standing committee. By this means it is hoped to bring Australia alongside those nations that have pioneered most in regard to teaching about the League.

The work of these special committees should prove important. So far, not enough thinking has yet been done on the question of how the teaching of history can be kept faithful to objective realities, and at the same time adequate instruction be given regarding the ideals of the League. Doubtless a way through this problem will be devised by some of the committees recently created. One suggestion is that the ideals of the League can best be dealt with by the introduction of a special section on international duties in books dealing with " Civics ". This has already been partly done in Victoria. There is also need to consider to what extent information about the League can fittingly be introduced into the study of other subjects. Some examiners hold the view that the subject of the League is too important to be confined to students of history. It has therefore been suggested that information should be incorporated in geography textbooks concerning mandated territories and about other demilitarised zones, and that the international work of the Health Section of the League could fittingly be referred to in lessons in hygiene. All these matters are to be brought before the notice of the Permanent Advisory Committee in New South Wales.

The main problem to be considered is the amount of time to be given to individual subjects. As in other countries, it is only with difficulty that new topics of interest are introduced into the curricula. Languages and mathematics still receive most attention, and educational tradition in the secondary schools is not as flexible as is frequently assumed. The examination system is still the way to a professional career, and boards of examiners have not yet specially emphasised recent developments in the social sciences. The problem partly lies in the difficulty of bringing teaching sufficiently up to date to keep in line with current affairs without allowing it to degenerate into propagandism. The risk of this at present is extremely slight, but warnings have been rightly voiced by some educational leaders. Not all believers in the League are conscious of the fact that it is helped most when enthusiasm is blended with judgment. A few members of the public seem to confuse the League as it exists in fact, with the League that as yet exists only in idea. There is therefore a danger, even though

it is confined to very few persons, that enthusiasm may turn out jingoists of a new international species.

Work of Teachers' Organisations.

To direct the attention of teachers to the need for instruction about the League does not mean necessarily that these instructions are carried out by the teachers. The response of the teachers themselves, however, has proved most encouraging. At the national conference of the Australian State Teachers' Federation in January 1928, a resolution was adopted, requesting the various branches to assist in furthering knowledge of the work of the League. Early in 1929, the President of the New South Wales League of Nations Union, by request, addressed a largely attended meeting of the Head Masters' and Head Mistresses' Association. Since then, other conferences have emphasised the need for support of all movements to promote international co-operation. In most of the States the teachers' associations have published information in their monthly magazines. In New South Wales, prominence has been given for a number of years to information supplied for *Education* by the League of Nations Union and other organisations. This publication reaches 8,000 teachers throughout the State.

Voluntary Organisations.

(a) *Activities directly concerning Schools.*

Almost without exception, the official departments have favoured the work carried out by responsible voluntary organisations. Essay and examination competitions organised in South Australia, Tasmania and New South Wales by the League of Nations and the National Council of Women have been cordially supported by official heads. Mention of the competitions has been made in official gazettes, and teachers have been asked to bring them before the notice of pupils. The number of entries for these essays and examinations has not been very large, though recent years show a considerable increase. Examiners report that the majority of essays are well informed and some reach a really high standard for juniors. It is of some

interest to note in passing that the Dabney World Prize Competition organised in the United States in 1927 was won by a Tasmanian youth. The expense of travelling to Geneva has hitherto precluded prizes being given for this purpose as in other countries. Nevertheless, a wide range of prizes is distributed, the total value of which, in recent years, has been approximately £100. Prizes are to be given this year by the National Council of Women of New South Wales for an original poem and an original story about the League, and also an essay on : " Wanted, a Young Man or Woman who would undertake to bring about World Peace. Salary £10,000 a year. If you got this position, how would you set about the work ? "

Other methods adopted by the League of Nations Unions to interest young people include arrangements for prominent public leaders to give addresses at schools on special " days ". Armistice Day is especially favoured for this purpose, but opportunity is also taken on Empire Day, for example, to emphasise the fact that loyalty to humanity does not compete with, but rather grows from and fulfils, loyalty towards country and empire. One frequently hears the view expressed that there should be established a special League of Nations Day. Various dates have been suggested, especially the first Monday in each September, when the League Assembly formally opens.[1] Opinion is now growing in favour of August 27th, the anniversary of the signing of the Pact of Paris, being observed as an international day, in view of the wide acceptability of this date.

Early in 1929, a series of three brief wireless addresses for children were broadcasted from Station 2FC, Sydney, as part of the educational sessions for schools.

Special arrangements have been made whereby schools may become " corporate " Members of League of Nations Unions on payment of £1 1*s*. 0*d*. per year. By this means, literature regarding the work of the League and about international affairs is supplied regularly for the libraries of schools that are corporate members. This literature is thus available both for teachers and students. Included in this literature is *Headway*, the monthly publication of the League of Nations Union, London. In New South Wales, the booklets published by " International Conciliation ", Boston, are also distributed. Invaluable bibliographies regarding current international problems are usually given in these last-mentioned publications.

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[1] In 1929, the Assembly fixed September 10th as the opening date of the Assembly of 1930.

Teachers are thus placed in a position to examine different aspects of current problems and to draw their own conclusions. Evidence goes to show that these booklets are too technical for the average school pupil but are highly valued by a number of teachers. Perhaps the most encouraging feature of this aspect of the work of the League of Nations Union in New South Wales is the cordial support given by the Hon. D. H. Drummond, Minister for Education, who in 1928 addressed the following open letter to teachers :

> " Isolation breeds suspicion, suspicion breeds enmity, and thus the seeds of war are sown.
>
> " The mission of the League of Nations is to remove the dangers of isolation, by bringing the nations of the world into constant communication and conference. If future wars are to be averted, there is no better means of prevention than that spirit of mutual understanding and sympathy which the League of Nations Union is endeavouring to inculcate.
>
> " I know of no more worthy cause than this, and sincerely commend it to the wholehearted co-operation and assistance of those who, by the nature of their selected life-work, are peculiarly fitted to direct the minds of the rising generations of Australia in this State — the teachers of New South Wales. "

(b) *Public Activities.*

Inasmuch as the growth of public opinion is reflected to a greater or lesser degree amongst teachers, the general work of voluntary organisations is of some importance. Outstanding amongst these organisations are the League of Nations Unions, formed in each of the capital cities of the Commonwealth shortly after the foundation of the League. The total membership of these unions has nearly doubled within the last few years, but is still small, being only about 8,000. As members include, however, persons prominent in educational, church, commercial and political circles, the influence of these organisations is more widespread than membership might seem to indicate. At all centres the unions have sought not only to propagandise on behalf of the ideals, but also to educate regarding the organisation and work, of the League. Various methods have been tried with more or less success. Large public meetings have been organised at various centres and a very great number of

lectures and addresses have been given to special groups. During the last four years, over 400 lectures and addresses have been given in Sydney alone. Public meetings organised by the unions almost invariably have been supported by leaders of all political parties, by municipal authorities, by teachers and by representative churchmen. In many cases support is doubtless more nominal than active ; nevertheless, within ten years, cynicism and scepticism have largely been overcome, until to-day there are scarcely any hints of opposition. The changed attitude of the Press is largely responsible for this. Actually the apathy of friends of the League is the main cause for concern. The net result of ten years' work, however, is a growing demand for detailed information. It is interesting to note that in Sydney lectures of a general character about the League and the need for peace now arouse little interest, the demand being for information regarding specific problems such as " Armaments ", " Mandates ", and the " International Labour Office ". When lecturing recently at the High School at Bathurst, N.S.W., the present writer was asked by students of about seventeen years of age to deal with the questions of " Mandates " and the " Optional Clause " of the Statute of the Permanent Court of International Justice.

Films.

In one direction success has been achieved in Australia to an extent that is probably unique. In 1927 the New South Wales League of Nations Union secured from London the film " The Star of Hope ". By arrangement with Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer, Ltd., this film was presented in an abbreviated form, under the title " Pen *versus* Sword ", along with the super-feature American war film, " The Big Parade ". Precise figures are not available, but it is known that these two films were released together for exhibition in approximately 1,000 cinema theatres throughout the whole of the Commonwealth. Half a million descriptive leaflets were printed for free distribution, and probably at least that number of persons thus saw the story of the League presented in graphic form. In many instances well-known public leaders gave brief introductory addresses on the League to the theatre audiences. At the opening season in Melbourne, the address was given by the Attorney-General for the Commonwealth, Hon. J. G. Latham,

now Leader of the Opposition, to an audience of about 3,000. In Adelaide, addresses were given by a number of speakers, including the Minister for Education. In the suburbs of Sydney, addresses were given by the Minister for Home and Territories, and by Mr. C. E. W. Bean, Commonwealth War Historian. In Brisbane, fourteen addresses were given by the Vice-Mayor and by Miss Freda Bage, one of the Australian delegates to the 1926 Assembly, and attendances at the central theatre at Hobart were increased by the efforts of the League of Nations Union. In almost every case where the film was exhibited in Perth, arrangements were made for addresses by competent lecturers. A special railway pass was issued by the Western Australian Government for a lecturer to visit country towns, and at a number of these towns the theatre proprietor arranged for the hotel expenses of the lecturer.

International Ball.

One special activity of the League of Nations Union in New South Wales is worthy of mention, since it may be worth testing in some other countries. In 1926 an annual " International Ball " was instituted. With the wholehearted support of resident Consuls and their communities the function has progressed from success to greater success, until it is now widely regarded as one of the main public social events of the year. For many people, the function permits social relations with nationals of other countries that could not easily be gained otherwise. Last year, 2,000 people were present, including nationals of many other countries. Over 300 persons took part in the grand pageant. Public interest in this spectacular function has increased from year to year, and considerable Press publicity has been given to it. The financial results, moreover, have greatly helped to support the work of the local League of Nations Union : in 1929 the net profits from the function were £822. On all occasions, the international ball has received full official patronage, and the success achieved has been due largely to the practical support given by Lady de Chair, wife of the Governor of New South Wales.

League of Nations Pageant.

In Adelaide, a somewhat similar method has been adopted to bring the work of the League graphically before the notice of the general public. A member of the Victorian Union was

commissioned to write a pageant-play called " The Warrior ", and an influential public committee was organised to guarantee the expenses and arrange for its production at the largest central theatre. The results exceeded all expectations. Over 300 amateurs were in the piece, and the season, instead of ending after three or four evenings, as originally proposed, extended into ten presentations. Even then, large numbers had to be refused admission. Negotiations are now proceeding with the leading theatrical firm in the Commonwealth for the production of the play in Sydney.

Other organisations responsible for influencing public opinion include the local branches of the Institute of Pacific Relations and the Royal Institute of International Affairs. Both these groups concentrate on research rather than on propaganda. Membership in each case is small, but it includes a number of prominent leaders. Delegations have been sent by the former body to each of the Conferences of the Institute of Pacific Relations since 1925, the delegates being, in all cases, persons particularly well placed to influence public opinion. The Institute, in conjunction with other organisations, is responsible for the collection of information and publication of three volumes, namely, " Studies in Australian Affairs ", " The Australian Mandate in New Guinea ", and " The Peopling of Australia ". At the end of last year, the Institute of Pacific Relations and the local branch of the Royal Institute merged into the Australian Institute of International Affairs.

The oldest organisations in Australia dealing with international affairs are the local branches of the London Peace Society. More radical in opinion than most of the above-mentioned organisations, these societies pioneered the cause of international peace many years before, as well as during, the great war. Members of the Peace Society, though relatively few in number, publicly espouse the cause of the League, because its machinery and the practical nature of its programme provide channels through which peace ideals may be expressed. In Melbourne, the Peace Society offers prizes for a competition on the subject of International Relations, and in Sydney, with the approval and support of the Minister for Education, copies of the Pact of Paris, suitable for hanging on the walls, were supplied last year to all schools throughout the State.

Amongst the newer organisations beginning to influence the community on international affairs is the Rotary Club. At the

Third Pacific Rotary Conference held in Sydney last March the following resolution was passed :

> " That it be suggested to the International Service Committee that representations be made to Rotary Clubs in all countries to utilise the influence of their individual members to have included in the curricula for schools material on the history of international methods of co-operation; also to urge the teaching of the history of mankind rather than concentration on the history and deeds of separate peoples, with the object of procuring in the coming generation an international rather than a purely national outlook."

Within the universities, voluntary work is carried out by small groups. League of Nations societies from time to time arrange for open lectures by prominent local speakers and visitors from overseas, and the International Student Service groups endeavour to stimulate interest in students suffering disabilities in other countries. At the present time, this last-mentioned organisation is endeavouring to assist in the relief of distress amongst Bulgarian students.

This survey would be lacking in perspective if it did not emphasise the fact that the activities mentioned are by no means thoroughly systematised. At most, they are but the beginnings of a task that will take long to complete. In Australia, we are unfortunately in special need of being reminded of the importance of international affairs. The public for the most part is apathetic ; politicians too frequently assume that they fulfil their duty when they bestow somewhat pious and often platitudinous benedictions on the League ; some teachers follow the work of the League very closely, but the majority, though open-minded, are not yet well informed regarding the momentous changes in world organisation during the last decade. But the important fact remains that very encouraging beginnings have been made, and the movement is obviously gaining momentum.

Not enough has been done, by any means, to satisfy the demands of the most radical sections of the community. These still regard with suspicion the easy patriotism and the occasional hints of jingoism engendered by some persons. But to emphasise this aspect is to view the question out of proportion. Undoubtedly the great majority of Australians live within the tradition of the British Commonwealth of Nations, but it is also

indubitable that it is mainly within the best part of that tradition that most Australians live politically. Liberty of conscience and liberty of parliamentary institutions are fundamental assumptions of our national creed. When it is more widely understood that membership of the League is entirely voluntary, and that membership involves rights as well as obligations, one may expect to find far more definite support.

Signs are evident that certain special aspects of the League's work are attracting more notice. Interest is growing in the fact that Australia is a mandatory power, with a duty to fulfil towards the League. Any suggestion by commercial interests that New Guinea, for example, is an Australian possession, is quickly met with a reminder that a mandate is a trusteeship. For another reason also, interest is likely to develop quickly. As mentioned above, politics in Australia devolve, to a degree that is probably unique, on problems affecting the standard of living. Undoubtedly many look upon the present high standard of living through eyes that are merely selfish. It is impossible, however, to understand the political outlook in Australia unless it is realised that numbers of persons regard the question almost with religious fervour, as a sociological experiment on behalf of all mankind. It is therefore easy to understand the widespread fear that sweated labour conditions which exist, for example, in China, menace the welfare of workers in this and other countries. In spite of this, most people have carelessly assumed that the present high standard of living in Australia is securely established. The present world economic crisis, however, is bringing home the truth that no country can live permanently in a water-tight compartment. It may therefore confidently be anticipated that the efforts of the International Labour Organisation to improve conditions of labour and industry in backward countries will attract increasing attention.

Australia as a nation may best be regarded as a growing youth just feeling his own strength. The tradition of Anzac and other memories of the recent war are still strong factors in our national consciousness. But alongside this is also the tradition of pioneers who won victories, not by force of arms, but by perseverance and inventiveness against refractory forces of nature. The feeling that this is the world's main task, and that it is one on which a young nation especially must concentrate attention, is beginning to find expression in the view that Australia must avoid " entangling alliances ".

Not easily do Australians understand the oppositions between older nations : somewhat emphatically the view is occasionally expressed that those bent on warfare should be allowed to proceed to mutual extermination. This does not indicate callousness in regard to whether justice or injustice shall win through as much as preoccupation with our own task of nation-building.

All Australians are aware of the fact that our land has never known warfare ; all hope that the Pacific Ocean will remain pacific in fact as well as in name. Our country is therefore likely to play its part in a world seeking to find political security not merely through battleships and arms, but also through co-operation. It may be too much to expect the older generation to trust greatly the new organisation and technique being developed by the League of Nations. But there can be no doubt that, in recent years, there is a distinct tendency to show how the League's efforts to promote co-operation are essential to the fulfilment of national hopes. On this well-founded and reasonable basis the young people of Australia are being more and more trained.

Raymond G. WATT,
General Secretary, League of Nations Union, New South Wales.

GERMANY

INSTRUCTION ON THE AIMS OF THE LEAGUE.

Before Germany's entry into the League of Nations, the spirit of the League could only be aroused or cultivated slowly and tentatively in the country's educational establishments. This instruction was given in the various liberal branches and particularly in the history lessons. The task was facilitated by a Prussian Ministerial Decree prohibiting the use of the old history manuals, which made it easier to avoid the pre-war terminology and introduce a new terminology corresponding to the new world conditions. Teachers were no longer obliged to comply with fixed rules as regards the attention to be devoted to each chapter. One chapter could be treated in detail, while another might be dealt with more summarily or even omitted altogether. New facts could be introduced, such as the plans and schemes of the forerunners of the League of Nations, from Pierre Dubois to Emmanuel Kant. Special emphasis could be laid on the history of the efforts made to ensure peace. In studying the epoch of absolutism, the teacher could show the complete absence of all the requisite conditions for the existence and action of a League of Nations, and then by enumerating the factors now existing in the world or in process of creation instil a conviction of the present possibility of the League and thus inculcate in young people the belief that the League of Nations, from being a Utopia, had now become a practical possibility.

Within the limits of a more elastic plan of instruction, it was possible, during the round table debates attended by the older pupils, to go into all the questions mentioned above, to discuss the ideas of Kant, to enquire into the defects of the Holy Alliance and the reasons for its failure and, by considering the economic (Zollverein) or political unification of Germany, arouse a belief in the unification of the civilised world. Thus, even without speaking or desiring to speak of the League of Nations at Geneva, teachers had every opportunity of creating the state of mind necessary for its understanding and of thus contributing perhaps better to a good school instruction in the League of Nations than if they had taught actual details about the League at Geneva.

The same applied in regard to geography, where, without mentioning the Geneva institution, teachers could talk of the economic complexity of the world, of the impossibility in future of self-contained national units, of the interdependence of industrialised States, of the Europeanisation of the globe, of the international division of labour between States, etc. ; in connection with the frontier between the United States and Canada, they could mention the earliest arbitration treaties of contemporary history ; in connection with the Dogger Bank, the Hudson Bay territories, the Alabama room at Geneva, the Peace Palace at The Hague, etc., they could refer to the arbitral awards before the war, while in connection with Greece, Bulgaria, Corfu, Albania, the Aaland Islands, etc., a discreet reference could be made to the disputes settled by the League of Nations. With regard, however, to the frontiers of Germany, to the minority territories and to the mandated territories, the greatest tact had to be exercised.

Then on September 8th, 1926, came Germany's entry into the League, which was welcomed even by many members of the German People's Party. Members of the German National People's Party were represented in the German League of Nations Union. Conservative politicians like Freytagh-Loringhoven wrote critical but thorough and scientific commentaries on the Covenant of the League. On May 28th, 1927, appeared the admirable decree of the Prussian Minister of Education, Science and Art, making it compulsory for all the schools in Prussia to give detailed instruction on the League of Nations. About a year later, Dr. W. Schellberg made a favourable report on the manner in which this decree had been carried out (see also *The Educational Survey*, July 1929, page 120). Everywhere a sincere desire to observe this decree was manifest ; what was lacking was the necessary books giving the teachers information in a handy and attractive form. To remedy this defect, the well-known educational publishers, Messrs Moritz Diesterweg of Frankfort-on-Main, published at the instance of the central authorities the pamphlet entitled " The League of Nations : Its Aims, Organisation and Activities ", by Albert Kruse, 1928, 44 pages, and a year later the treatise " The League of Nations and Education — Material and Suggestions", 67 pages, whose introduction and conclusion well characterise the manner in which instruction on the League of Nations is conceived in Germany and which we therefore reproduce below.

"Instruction regarding the League of Nations should only be given by those who are in sympathy with that institution and by those who do not regard it as a Utopia, or as a magic wand by means of which war, which is only the symptom of a deeply rooted disease, can be banished overnight. It should, indeed, be given by those who regard the League as a reality made up of concrete facts which are open to scientific examination, and who consider it necessary with a view to transforming the material world in which we live into one governed by the principles of morality, and to ensuring humanity's triumph in the twentieth century over the dark forces which overshadowed the nineteenth. A teacher dealing with the League of Nations should be among those who regard its Covenant as an institution which, though imperfect, is capable of improvement and is likely to promote peace and progress — an institution still bound up, it is true, with the Treaties of Peace, but not indissolubly linked with these Treaties, capable of breaking away from them in the course of time, destined perhaps to change its character completely, but not to disappear, for a return to the anarchical state of the political world before the war is inconceivable . . . As Germans, such teachers should regard the League of Nations as a community of peoples which, although originally formed of an association of their former enemies, and taking necessarily hostile decisions against them, has developed into an association which needs them, which extends to them a warm welcome and which gives them their proper place in the Concert of Powers ; which makes them feel and realise the importance of their country as the very heart of Europe, an indispensable element in the community of nations, and therefore both entitled and bound to undertake work of the highest importance."

As regards the value of instruction concerning the League of Nations, the treatise concludes as follows :

"The study of the facts relating to the development of the League of Nations belongs to history, and that of the details of its operation to civics. This study therefore serves to develop both the historical and the civic sense. It directs the student's mind towards the past, and also towards the present and the future. It lessens the danger, to which Germans are particularly exposed, of exaggerating small

values in the past and of losing sight of important values in the present.

" It relates less to events that have happened than to endeavours which have still to prove their value, and it is therefore a practical study in the best sense. It lessens the uncritical acceptance on the part of the pupils of all that the master says. It introduces critical doubts, reflection, discussion and meditation into the lesson. It wakens new interest in nearly all the domains of historical instruction, logically co-ordinates scattered facts and places them on a higher plane. It opens the pupils' eyes and hearts to the events of the present day, and enables the rising generation to judge League questions in a less superficial manner than heretofore.

" By the discussion of the high ethical principles on which the idea of the League of Nations is based, it gives the pupils moral standards which will enrich their private lives, their school life and the whole of our national political life, and will help to combat the detestable theory of the distinction which exists between politics and morality. It weakens bitter and sterile pessimism and strengthens the feeling that, after all, evolution leads to progress. "

With a view to improving instruction regarding the existence and aims of the League of Nations and to elucidating the various questions connected therewith, a Conference lasting three days was held in Berlin in November 1929, which the official organ of the German philologists, the *Deutsches Philologenblatt*, summarised as follows :

" *The League of Nations and the School* ".

" From November 11th to 13th, 1929, the Conference on ' The League of Nations and the School ', organised by the Central Institute for Education and Instruction at the instance of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Reich Ministry of the Interior and the Prussian Ministry of Education, Science and Arts, was held in the rooms of the Deutsche Gesellschaft in Berlin. One hundred and fifty head masters and teachers from schools of all kinds and from all parts of Germany were invited and took part in the Conference.

" Justly appreciating its importance, Dr. Becker, Prussian

Minister of Worship and Education, opened the session with a speech in which he emphasised the fact that by the Decree of May 28th, 1927, Prussia was the first country to introduce instruction regarding the League of Nations officially into the schools, and laid stress on the importance of this instruction for the peace and progress of the world. The first Rapporteur, Professor Ernst Jäckh, outlined in a convincing speech, based on his personal relations with nearly all the present-day 'makers of world policy', the development of the League up to the Hoover-MacDonald agreement. The main theme of his speech was to show the surprising results which had been achieved in a very small number of years. The scheme for a League of Nations put before his hearers by Professor Nelson, of Göttingen, on July 31st, 1914, as the aim of the war which had just broken out ; Erzberger's scheme, that of the German International Law Association and that of the German Government, not to speak of earlier proposals, showed that the League was by no means a Western European invention. The agreement between the American Quaker and the Scottish Socialist signified the end of world domination through sea-power, the freedom of the seas, the beginning of a new order in the world based on treaty agreements, the disappearance of France's imperialist tendencies and of the European war psychosis and the possibility of settling reparations, war debts and general disarmament.

" Dr. Hans Abmeier, Professor at the Bonn Pedagogic Academy, then spoke on the aims and nature of instruction regarding the League of Nations and, in spite of his painful personal experiences in connection with the plebiscite question, showed in an enthusiastic speech how instruction regarding the existence and aims of the League had been successfully introduced into the schools in spite of the opprobrium which had originally attached to any attempt of this kind. More important than instruction proper was the education of youth to take an active part in the transformation of the League of Nations, founded without Germany, into an organ of political morality which would do her justice.

" Dr. Lötschert in his report on the ' Methods of Instruction on the League of Nations ' emphasised the difficulties of this instruction, which bore both on facts and principles and was complicated by extraneous political considerations.

In his opinion, instruction should begin by a simple outline of the progress achieved, thanks to the very rapid development of the League. It should be continued by an explanation of its machinery and should be concluded by a discussion of its problems and particularly those which have not yet been solved (minorities and disarmament). But at the same time it was essential that a drastic change should be made in the teaching of history. Side by side with the considerations still found in many German and foreign history books on the part played by force in the history of nations, a more important place should be given to ' metapolitical ' notions (to use von Wiese's expression), such as the limitation of sovereignty, federalism, solidarity, co-operation, etc. Furthermore, the teaching of history must always bring back the pupil's mind from the events of the past to those of the present and future by means of illuminating comparisons and comments. The teachers themselves should realise that they were on the threshold of a new epoch, marking the supersession of outworn methods, and that it was their duty to open the eyes of youth to this worldwide revolution.

" Mr. Reinhold Lehmann, of Leipzig, dealt exhaustively with the question of literature concerning the League in so far as it concerned school-teachers. The publications of the Geneva Secretariat, the Library of the Education Department of the German League of Nations Union at Berlin and its monthly review *Der Völkerbund* were successively dealt with by the speaker.

" Baron von Rheinbaben, member of the Reichstag, dealt with the work of the League of Nations and the results hitherto achieved from the standpoint of a practical German politician. In the evolution of the League of Nations, he distinguished between the anti-German period from 1920 to 1926, during which France dominated the League in order to maintain her hegemony, this being facilitated by England's disarmament ; the period of Germany's accession and co-operation from 1926 to 1929, during which progress was made in the extension of international law and during which the idea of arbitration triumphed ; and the period beginning with 1930 which, after the settlement of the problems of reparations and war debts, would bear the mark of German influence in the lines of dynamic evolution and transformation. Naturally, if the results achieved by

the League were considered from the point of view of their advantages to Germany rather than from the point of view of their advantages to the world adopted by Professor Jäckh, the results would be shown in a different light. These remarks were ignored in the somewhat heated general debate, as also were Baron von Rheinbaben's concluding words : ' No one having any sense of realities can now uphold the view that the League is an institution with which Germany wishes to have nothing to do. We have no right to let slip any opportunity of making good our claims '.

" The practical teaching experiments made with an elementary class, a secondary girls' class, a first class in the ' Französisches Gymnasium ', an extension class and a police school, in all cases gave valuable results, and in most cases were successful. The lantern slides shown, on the other hand, left much to be desired.

" Another stumbling-block in the very lively discussion was provided by the disarmament problem. This problem was never dealt with from the point of view of its development and significance and of its relation with economic, political and psychological factors ; nor was it ever emphasised that disarmament constituted not only a preliminary condition but a consequence of the development of international law and that it was practically useless without moral disarmament. Even the fact that we had a *right* to general disarmament was not everywhere insisted on. But it was repeatedly pointed out that instruction regarding the League of Nations does not consist in a knowledge of the technical facts about the League and does not aim at introducing a new subject, but should awaken a true appreciation of the League's purpose and a true League spirit.

" Dr. Schellberg showed in his report on ' The Position of Instruction regarding the League of Nations in the Light of the Reports of the Provincial School Councils and of the Governments ' that willingness to apply the decree was universal, and that any failures were to be attributed to the lack of suitable material. In his conclusion, he thanked all those taking part in the Conference and expressed the hope that the suggestions made, which would be published in a collection of the speeches prepared by the Central Institute, would bear fruit in the schools of Germany. "

This Conference, the realisation of which was principally due to the assiduous efforts of the German representative on the Sub-Committee of Experts of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, was also very fully dealt with in the non-technical German Press. A general wish was expressed that it should be repeated. Unfortunately, there at present seems little prospect of this, not for lack of willingness on the part of those concerned but for pecuniary reasons. The financial situation in Germany is still so strained, and the burden of the German taxpayer is so great, that there is little chance of another meeting in the near future unless the money is forthcoming from an unexpected quarter.

One of the other visible results of the Berlin Conference has been to encourage also the private initiative of educationists. An independent " study-circle for instruction regarding the League of Nations " has been formed at Cologne. Every three weeks, except during the holidays, debates or lectures are arranged. Both the universities and the Press give their support to this admirable enterprise. Professors of Cologne University have spoken on the foundations of international law, the evolution of contemporary world economics, the International Labour Organisation, " metapolitics " and the League, etc. A professor of Cologne University and two professors from the Bonn Pedagogic Academy have promised their assistance in the near future. Dr. Adenauer, the burgomaster of Cologne, has expressed great interest in the study-circle. Apart from the local Press, the *Kölnische Zeitung*, the *Kölnische Volkszeitung* and the *Deutsches Philologenblatt* (reproducing other articles) have given regular accounts of the study-circle's proceedings. Teachers from all the schools, students and friends of the peace movement from other districts, and particularly ladies belonging to the " Association for Practical Peace Work " have taken part in the meetings. The programme for the current summer term provides for debates on " Germany's Frontiers and the League " and " The Reform of History Teaching and the League " and two lectures, one by Dr. Fr. Schneider, Professor at the Bonn Pedagogic Academy, on " International Pedagogy " and the other by Dr. Godehard Ebers, Professor of Social Science at Cologne University on " New Tendencies in the Protection of Minorities ".

The predominating opinion among those who took part in the Berlin Conference was that instruction regarding the League should not introduce a new subject into the teaching of history,

which is already burdened with an excess of material. Attempts at practical instruction relating only to material facts with regard to the League and the organisation and working of the Geneva institutions did not meet with the Conference's approval. Time after time it was emphasised that the main object was to familiarise young people with the ideas and spirit of the League. Hardly enough attention was paid to the practical achievements of the League. This is comprehensible when it is realised that most of its important work was done before Germany became a Member, and that its decisions in those days could hardly be called pro-German by the most ardent apologist of the League. To-day they can be judged in a better perspective, and the opinion is gaining ground that the acts of the League of Nations also belong to the domain of history and that they have the same historical value as events which occurred 50 or 500 years ago, and are of much greater importance to contemporaries. It is therefore recommended that they should now be studied from childhood as a point of departure for instruction regarding the League. From the examples of the Greco-Bulgarian incident and of the questions of the Aaland Islands and of Vilna, the children must deduce the rôle and methods of the League of Nations, and from the work of Nansen and others they must learn to know its social and humanitarian activities. A new publication in the collection Gilde at Cologne is intended to reinforce this point of view. A popular book, the first edition of which is of 20,000 copies, containing 128 pages, 165 pictures and maps, and the full text of the Covenant, at the moderate price of 1.50 mark, aims at making known to a wide circle of readers the existence, nature and rôle of the League of Nations. The facts are not presented in a dry legal manner, but are explained in simple and attractive language without the accuracy of the book suffering in any way.

Thus instruction regarding the League is making excellent progress in Germany. The negative side of the reform of the history manuals has been practically completed. Bellicose or partial comments have been expunged. On the positive side, important preparatory work is being done. It aims at deducing from the existence of the new political institution constituted by the League of Nations the necessity, and in fact the political and moral obligation, of a reform of history teaching. Guiding principles are in preparation for the reorganisation of this teaching, which will adapt it, as regards substance and form, to present-day conditions. These principles are being discussed

and will then form valuable material for the proposed international conference for the reform of history manuals in the autumn.

Hugo LÖTSCHERT,
Studienrat at the Municipal Gymnasium and Realgymnasium, Kreuzgasse, Cologne.

ITALY.

How the League of Nations is made known in Italy.

It is a great mistake, and one from which some advocates of the League of Nations are unable to free themselves, to believe that methods of making the League known can be standardised. Education has, on the contrary, its own special requirements in each country, determined by the traditions, culture, intelligence and sentiments of the people. In Italy, educational work on Anglo-Saxon lines in the interests of the League would be absolutely fruitless. Nor must it be believed that, as has been alleged, little or nothing has been done in Italy in this respect. On the contrary, a good deal has been done, in different ways, and in accordance with the methods most suitable for the Italian public. But the task will be a long one in Italy, as in other countries, and it is no use being impatient.

Efforts must be brought to bear, first and foremost, upon young people. Grown men may, of course, sometimes be won over to a *novus ordo* ; but the conquest is slow and hard to achieve, for the mind of a grown man has been formed. It is there, with its good qualities and defects, and with — to speak laconically — its fixed ideas.

It has been sought to influence young people :

1. By devoting part of each week's teaching to explanations of the aims and work of the League, through the Balilla organisation, the powerful national institution which comprises about a million little Italians, divided into two main groups : *balilla* (between 7 and 15 years of age) and *avanguardisti* (between 14 and 19 years of age).

2. By creating *university groups for the League of Nations.* University groups, which were at first members of a single national association, have now been formed in every town in which there is a university or other institute for advanced studies. Independent in resources and organisation, the groups constitute a national federation and, since their formation as such, have met each year in congress to improve their organisation and to study the most important of the problems which,

during the whole year, are the subject of discussions, lectures and study in the individual groups. Each group is connected with the professors concerned with international questions, who direct the young men's studies.

At the congresses held in these last years at Pavia and Perugia, several theses relating to the League, or to special questions concerning its working, were delivered and discussed.

On the other hand, with regard to technical problems, each institute for advanced studies has teachers who specialise in the League's organisation and work. Some universities (*e.g.*, Pavia) have instituted courses of lectures, held regularly each year, on subjects connected with the League, or even special courses covering both theory and practice. In the Faculty of Political Science of the University of Rome, for instance, the professor of the history of treaties and international relations has held annual study-group courses on special questions (minorities, mandates, etc.), which are particularly valuable in that the talks and lectures are given both by the tutors and the students — in the latter case under the tutors' guidance.

All this has had a considerable practical effect. In these last few years, a large number of doctorate theses on subjects and problems concerning the League have been submitted in the different universities.

Both young people and adults are also influenced by the *League of Nations Associations*. There are now six such associations in Italy — at Rome, Milan, Turin, Naples, Trieste and Bolzano. Together with the Association of War Wounded and the Italian Institute of International Law, they form a *national federation*. The largest of these associations is that at Rome, which organises lectures, publishes a series of studies (including an excellent translation of the book "The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations"), and has a specialised library containing all the official League publications and the most important publications in Italian, French, English and German on the League or on problems of foreign politics. Every day the secretariat of the Association, which is a permanent body, gives information and advice, and helps anyone, whether a student or not, who applies to it — thus acting as a general documentation and information centre. Besides this, the Secretariat encourages the sending of young people to the Geneva " summer courses ", not only with the aid of scholarships granted by international organisations for this purpose, but also by means of those offered to students each year by the Ministries for Foreign

Affairs and of Education. Further, the students apply to the secretariat for books, documents, statistics and all other necessary means of study.

The work of the *National Committee for Intellectual Co-operation* must also be noted. This Committee, which is presided over by His Excellency Alfredo Rocco, is concerned, among other matters, with international school correspondence, interchanges of teachers and students, etc.

Lastly, there is the work of the *Italian Institute of International Law*. The Institute has, *inter alia*, made a collection of the most important speeches and statements delivered by Italian delegates at the League in publications which bear witness to the interest that Italy takes in the League's problems.

The women's organisations also show their interest in the League by lectures and discussions, the character and influence of which vary in accordance with the nature of the organisation.

The Italian League of Nations Union will shortly begin work in a new direction. It is now being reorganised, under the supervision of certain eminent men, and will resume its activities next autumn, strengthening the documentation and information centre, and organising a series of lecture courses at Rome and in the chief Italian university towns, so as to offer the general public teaching on the League — its nature and work — on a broad and comprehensive basis.

(Signed) Amedeo GIANNINI.

JAPAN.

The following statement by the Tokio Office of the League Secretariat was prepared for the meeting of the Sub-Committee of Experts.

The full text of the recommendations adopted at the first session of the Sub-Committee of Experts on Education of Youth in the Aims of the League of Nations, in August 1926, was translated by the Tokio Office of the League Secretariat into Japanese and circulated among the Press and educational organisations throughout Japan in October 1926. The work of the Sub-Committee of Experts and the reports from the various countries on teaching concerning the League were also translated by the Tokio Office and furnished to the Press and interested organisations. This information was published by a number of newspapers and was effective in drawing the attention of educationists to these matters.

In November 1926, the eleventh National Congress of Elementary-School Teachers was held at Tokio under the auspices of the Imperial Educational Association, and the recommendations of the Sub-Committee of Experts of the League were submitted by that Association for consideration. Mr. S. Aoki, Chief of the Tokio Office of the League Secretariat, explained the nature of the recommendations to the Congress, but no further steps were taken at that time.

At the seventh annual meeting of the League of Nations Association of Japan, which was held in Tokio in May 1927, a resolution put forward by Dr. Aikitsu Tanakadate, member of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and Director of the above Association, was adopted unanimously. It called attention to the fact that " nothing will be of greater value than the education of children and young people who form the next generation in the aims and work of the League of Nations ", and asked the Japanese Government to take definite measures to ensure that teaching be given on the League as soon as possible in compliance with the desires expressed by the League of Nations Association.

This resolution, together with the recommendations of the Sub-Committee of Experts, was submitted to the Minister of Education, Dr. R. Mizuno, by Viscount E. Shibusawa, President

of the Association, in June 1927. At the same time, the Association published a pamphlet, containing an "appeal to teachers throughout the country to give instruction on the aims of the League", and sent it to as many elementary- and secondary-school teachers as possible. This pamphlet also contained the resolution adopted at the seventh annual meeting of the Association and a summary of the work of the League.

In response to the appeal of the League of Nations Association, the Minister of Education, Dr. R. Mizuno, wrote an article in favour of League teaching and urged the necessity of a proper understanding of the work of the League. This article was published in the monthly organ of the association, *The World and Ourselves*, issued in July 1927.

Mr. I. Kobashi, first Minister of Education in the present Cabinet, also contributed an article to the same periodical last November, entitled " Education and the League of Nations ".

The handbook on " The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations " was translated into Japanese by the Tokio Office of the Secretariat at the expense of the League, and the Japanese Foreign Office is now printing 10,000 copies for distribution among the teachers of the elementary and secondary schools.

Teaching on the League in Schools.

Attendance at the elementary school is compulsory in Japan, and all the textbooks, called "National Textbooks", used in the elementary schools are uniform and compiled by the authorities of the Ministry of Education. Recently, their contents have been considerably revised with a view to promoting a spirit of international peace and co-operation.

The following textbooks : " National History for the Elementary School ", Volume II, revised in September 1926 (for children of 11 to 12 years), " National History for the Higher Course ", Volume II (for children of 12 to 13), and a number of textbooks on morality, both for the use of children and their teachers, all contain chapters relating to the League, such as " The World War and Japan ", " International Friendship ", " International Relations ", etc. A chapter on international friendship, after urging the necessity of goodwill and friendship, between countries, briefly relates that at the Peace Conference held in Paris, in which Japan participated, a peace treaty was concluded, and that the League Covenant, which is essential to

the future peace of the world, forms a part of that treaty. This chapter also refers to the Imperial Rescript issued on January 10th, 1920, when the peace treaty came into force, commanding the nation to endeavour to promote universal peace by observing its obligations and promoting international justice.

A chapter on international relations explains the aims of the League as follows :

" . . . At present more than fifty countries, including almost all the nations of the world, are Members of the League. It is a League of States formed in accordance with the stipulations of the Covenant and its aims are two-fold : To prevent war and achieve international peace and security, and to promote international co-operation and to contribute to the welfare of mankind. In order to attain these aims, the Member States have undertaken to reduce their armaments, to respect all treaty obligations and to settle international disputes by peaceful means . . . "

This chapter also deals with the mandate system, communications and transit, health, labour, protection of children, intellectual co-operation, and the organisation of the Assembly, Council and Secretariat.

The secondary-school system includes secondary schools for boys and girls, commercial and industrial continuation schools and normal schools. The pupils at these schools are between 12 and 17 years of age. The Ministry of Education issued instructions in 1925 ordering the inclusion in the secondary-school textbooks on morality, history, geography and civic education of the following subjects : International relations, the international spirit, the League of Nations, the International Labour Conference, international co-operation and morality, etc. The teachers in these schools are allowed to choose their own textbooks from a list approved by the Ministry of Education. Seventeen textbooks on morality for the use of boys and girls in secondary schools, most of which have been recently revised, are widely used. These textbooks contain chapters on " National Defence ", in which the disarmament work of the League is referred to, " International Co-operation ", " International Relations ", " The New Tendency of the World ", " The International Spirit ". In a textbook written by Mr. T. Tomoeda and revised in 1927, the aims and organisation of the League and its moral value are explained. Several chapters of this

textbook were translated into English and published by the League of Nations Association of Japan in 1924.

In one of the textbooks for normal schools there is a chapter, " International Community ", divided into three parts, (*a*) Peace of the World, (*b*) Internationalism and the League of Nations, (*c*) Japan and her International Relations.

There are three textbooks for teaching English in the secondary schools. One of them reprints the speech of President Wilson delivered in 1916, in which he explains his ideas of a League of Nations, and another contains a chapter by the League of Nations Association of Japan, entitled " The Fight for Peace ". In addition, secondary-school textbooks on geography and history refer to the mandated territories and territories administered under the auspices of the League.

Higher Schools, Colleges and Universities.

In the higher schools, colleges and universities there are no fixed textbooks, but the Ministry of Education has instructed the higher schools and colleges to include the following items in their curriculum :

> Under civic education : The fundamental idea of international law, treaties and the League of Nations.
>
> Under geography : The territories under League administration or protection, rivers under international administration, territories under mandate and the protection of minorities.
>
> Under history : The position of various countries after the great war, the Peace Conference in 1919, the Versailles Treaty, other international treaties concluded after the war, national self-determination, the League of Nations, etc.

The Waseda University in Tokio established a Chair on the League of Nations in 1927, which was first occupied by Dr. Nitobé.

The Commercial University of Tokio adopted the " Final Report of the International Economic Conference " as a textbook in 1927-28.

In April 1930, the Chuo University of Tokio adopted as a textbook the "Memorandum on Production and Trade, 1928", published by the League.

Some of the higher schools are using the English textbook,

" The League of Nations ", which contains extracts of addresses by Viscount Grey and President Wilson on the subject of the League and the great war.

In March 1930, three secondary schools adopted League subjects for their entrance examinations. At one of them in Tokio the question " What is the League of Nations ? " was replied to fairly well by 159 children, but 123 others were not aware of the League's existence.

There are several private organisations which have rendered service in promoting a knowledge of the League. Amongst them may be mentioned the " Keimei-kai ", an organisation of school-teachers founded in 1919. This organisation addressed a resolution to the First Assembly of the League, asking for the summoning of an International Educational Conference, the establishment of a Permanent International Educational Bureau and the appointment of a committee to investigate school textbooks in the different countries. The same resolution was addressed to the Second Assembly of the League, but, being a communication from a private body, was not discussed.

Another influential body is the " National Congress of Religious Bodies in Japan ". This Congress was held in Tokio in June 1928 and the Peace Section of the Congress passed a resolution asking the authorities of the Ministry of Education and school-teachers to undertake education in schools on the aims of the League.

As already mentioned, the " National Congress of Elementary-School Teachers " considered the recommendations of the Sub-Committee of Experts of the League at its eleventh session in 1926. Another teachers' organisation, the " National Congress of Women Teachers for Elementary Schools " passed a resolution in 1928 in which it was urged that instruction be given to children on international relations, the organisation of the League and international co-operation.

Special mention must be made of the " League of Nations Association of Japan " which has always endeavoured to foster international understanding among the Japanese people. Amongst the steps taken by the Association to further the education of children in the aims of the League the following may be picked out :

An exhibition of children's work of various countries, held in Tokio in February 1927 ; a number of children's articles and

pictures and also some diagrams indicating the organisation of the League were shown.

Messages from the Japanese children to children in foreign countries sent out in English, French and Esperanto in 1927. More than 20,000 school-children participated in this.

The broadcasting to all parts of the world of a message calling for international goodwill on May 18th every year since 1928.

The awards of prizes for essays by students in universities, colleges and secondary schools and for articles by elementary-school children on League subjects and international friendship.

The organisation of students' branches of the Association. There are forty-four such branches in universities, colleges and higher schools throughout Japan. They are engaged in studying various problems connected with the League under the direction of the professors and teachers, and the results of their researches are published in their own magazines. The handbook " The Aims and Organisation of the League " was translated into Japanese by some of the students belonging to one of these branches.

Reference may finally be made to the organisation of a special course on International Education under the auspices of the Ministry of Education in June 1924 for the benefit of elementary-school teachers. Lectures were delivered by several authorities on the various League problems.

NEW ZEALAND.

THE INTERNATIONAL IDEA IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS, THE UNIVERSITY AND THE TRAINING COLLEGES.

In a previous article, some attempt was made to indicate how far children attending the primary schools of New Zealand gain knowledge of the League of Nations and the idea of international co-operation. In a country where the avenues to some amount of higher education are wide and numerous, it is necessary to go further and treat of the secondary schools, the University, and the teachers' training colleges.

Just on 50 per cent of both the boys and girls who pass through the primary schools avail themselves of the opportunity to get free tuition at a secondary school. A considerable part of these, however, stay only two years before going into employment ; rather more than half stay for three, four or five years. Of those leaving the secondary schools every year, slightly over 3 per cent are stated in the *New Zealand Official Year-Book* to go on to the University. In addition, over 5 per cent — about two-thirds of them girls — go into the teaching profession and pass through one of the training colleges. About half of these would also attend University lectures, many of them graduating. A considerable number who are described as going to clerical and commercial employments also attend University lectures. For instance, law and accountancy students usually go into offices for practical experience. It appears that the 3 per cent of secondary pupils officially quoted as proceeding to the University refers only to the full-time students, who are in the minority.

Secondary Schools.

We now have some idea of the proportion of the youth of New Zealand to whom the following remarks apply. Almost 90 per cent of the secondary school population is in schools largely controlled by the Government, with a tendency towards

uniformity and standardisation in both syllabus and methods. It is a common criticism — how much more true of New Zealand than of other countries I do not venture to say — that the secondary schools are dominated by external examinations of a rather limited scope, and that initiative in teaching is curbed by centralised departmental control. It would seem that in making education widespread and in attaining a good level of general efficiency New Zealand has tended to lose something of responsiveness to the newer trends of educational thought. Certainly a standardised examination system, with a narrowly utilitarian relationship to earning a living rather than a training for wider living, is not conducive to a sympathetic study of the League of Nations or a grasp of the idea of international co-operation. Perhaps it is fortunate, under such circumstances, that these matters are not directly included in the standard examination prescriptions. The "cramming" methods that are too often current tend to produce nausea and certainly a failure to relate school subjects to life and citizenship.

The intermediate examination, usually taken after two years at a secondary school, provides in history for a general outline of the constitutional development of the United Kingdom and the growth of the British Empire, with special reference to New Zealand. The matriculation examination, nominally a University entrance test but actually serving more as a leaving certificate, taken in the third, fourth or fifth year, prescribes one of three periods of British history varying over a three-yearly rotation — 55 B.C. to A.D. 1485; A.D. 1485 to A.D. 1714; 1714 to 1900. The examination for University Entrance Scholarships, taken by the select few, all of whom do not include history in their subjects, prescribes British history in outline up to A.D. 1485 and in more detail from A.D. 1485 to 1900, together with a period of European history, either A.D. 1500 to 1715 or A.D. 1715 to 1914, according to the candidate's choice.

Obviously, what is made of such prescriptions depends on the teacher. From what has been said, it will be gathered that there is a danger of prescriptions being accepted as the ultimate boundary rather than being used as vantage points for wider visions. But, with the increasing study of history at the University and the quickening of international feeling among many ranks of youth, a more liberal interpretation of the syllabus may be expected. History is gradually emerging from degradation to a position of consideration, from the care of the jack-of-all-trades teacher to the expert. In the hands of a

teacher with a real appreciation of the meaning of history, no prescription can be adequately handled without reference to an institution whose aims and constitution are so obviously and necessarily the product of past experience, both good and ill, as are those of the League of Nations.

Otherwise it would seem difficult to find any justification for the teaching of history. Yet, granted the existence of progressive tendencies, it would still be quite possible for many boys and girls to go through the hands of many secondary school-teachers without hearing anything of the League of Nations or international co-operation, except a casual text-book reference in connection with the New Zealand mandate for Western Samoa.

However, a few head masters, head mistresses and teachers manage to emancipate themselves from the chains of external examinations. In one school in the South Island, which yet maintains good examination results, the whole curriculum is based on the idea of a universe in which co-operation is the great creative force. Whether the direct teaching on the League of Nations is much or little, the pupils of this school certainly get a disposition to enquire about and appreciate the vital movements of the day, and to play their part in promoting all forms of co-operation. The bulk of them would scarcely comprehend any other basis for the normal relationship of nations.

The same tendencies are noticeable in less degree in other schools and in the work of particular teachers. Many, both directly and indirectly, give admirable teaching on the League. The greatest opportunity for this is among pupils who stay for a year after passing the matriculation examination without any further external examination ahead of them. Wider and freer studies are thus permitted. In one girls' school, for instance, the history class works on definitely international lines. At one time, the class was divided into groups studying the history and culture of different countries and acting as their representatives in the discussion of world problems. At another time, each group was given a different aspect of civilisation — *e.g.*, architecture, preparation of food, games — to study in various different countries. A model League Assembly was also planned.

Such work is more fully developed in at least some of the private schools which are, as a rule, little concerned with external examinations. They contain, however, little more than 10 per cent of the secondary school population and sometimes

do not attain a high standard. Most of these are boarding-schools and much good work is done in some of them by voluntary clubs out of school hours. Junior branches of the League of Nations Union or similar organisations exist in some of them and are doing really serious study.

A number of secondary schools, both free and private, subscribe to the literature of the British League of Nations Union. They are generally ready to receive interesting speakers to address the pupils. The Student Christian Movement for over three years employed as general secretary a man who had intimate knowledge of post-war Europe, especially of youth movements. He frequently spoke at schools, usually on the League and always on the idea of international co-operation. Yet the number of schools touched by such occasional addresses is comparatively small.

The University.

There is but one University in New Zealand, consisting of constituent colleges in each of the four chief towns, Auckland, Wellington, Christchurch and Dunedin. A hindrance to the development of a broad and liberal education is the large number of students who do not devote their whole time to university study but, after a day's work as teachers, law clerks or in commerce, attend university classes only in the evening. In the Auckland University College, 80 per cent of the students are thus occupied, though the percentage is not so high in the southern colleges. The effect of this is aggravated by the blight of external examinations, which are conducted by the University and not by the constituent colleges. Under such conditions, it is difficult for both students and staff to regard the University as a means of education in the true sense rather than as an aid to surmount the examination barriers on the way to certain professions. Partly cause and partly effect of this is the comparatively low esteem in which the University is held in New Zealand. University men are not as numerous as one might expect among the leaders in official public life or in business, not so much from lack of ability, perhaps, as from the lack of public recognition and of the avenues that exist in countries with a tradition of university education. This, no doubt, is not unnatural in a young community where the tradition of the pioneer in an unbroken country puts a premium on the allegedly practical against the theoretic — the realm in which the university man is believed to spend his time.

So far the University has given no definite lead towards international co-operation. There is no course in international relations at any of the colleges ; nor is there any voluntary movement among students specifically devoted to their study, such as the University League of Nations Societies that exist in other countries. Now that a National Union of Students is being formed, those interested will certainly aim at some such development. However, the Student Christian Movement already stimulates a certain amount of thought, reading and discussion on international affairs, and certainly favours co-operation as the normal relation between nations.

The International Student Service also carries out something in the way of practical co-operation and a little educational work. But it is not strongly organised and usually does not touch student life deeply.

The history courses prescribed for University degrees do not provide for any definite teaching on the League of Nations, though, as stated before, according to the writer's conception of history teaching, the study of any period invites some reference to such an important present institution. How far this reference goes depends on the mental attitude of the teacher.

In bare outline the studies in the various grades are :

I. European history ; expansion of European Powers ; British self-governing Dominions with special reference to New Zealand ; the rise of the United States of America and Japan and the history in outline of countries round the Pacific ; all for the period A.D. 1815-1914.

II. European history A.D. 1495 to 1715 ; British colonial development and policy up to 1783.

III. European history A.D. 1715 to 1815 ; British colonial development and policy A.D. 1783 to 1914.

IV. A variety of topics, with some alternatives, includngi European history A.D. 1815 to 1914 and the constitutional developments within the British Empire up to the present.

These courses, without any definite mention of the League, provide ample scope for any teacher to stimulate his students to think on the problems of international relationships that have led to the creation of the League, and to consider in the light of history the lines of solution implicit in the League's methods and machinery. For instance, to take one of the less obvious

cases, the transformation of the British Empire into a Commonwealth of Nations, which must be dealt with, at least partly, in three different grades, invites allusion to the application of similar principles in the attempt to maintain a still wider society of nations without a centralised sovereign authority.

The advanced grades of the course in economics provide like opportunities for reference to the problems which the League seeks to solve and the methods used. But, of course, all students do not take history or economics, and still fewer pursue them to the advanced grades.

The Teachers' Training Colleges.

All entrants to the teaching profession in the primary schools and an increasing number in the secondary schools now pass through one of the four teachers' training colleges controlled by the Government Education Department. Here is the most vital point in strengthening the foundations of international co-operation, for every year between 450 and 500 young teachers go out to posts throughout the country and can exert a large influence, both consciously and unconsciously, in shaping the citizenship of the future. Their two years at training college generally mean much in happy fellowship and in the development of their ideas and characters. If there is then kindled in them the divine fire of any humane purpose, it is certain to radiate through their later work and environment.

The syllabus in the colleges aims at a wide culture and general knowledge, together with skill in the art of teaching. The multiplicity of subjects imposes a heavy burden, especially for those students who are also doing university work, and militates against a very thorough pursuit of any one. The teaching is, however, free of the bugbear of external examinations, the teachers' certificate with which training college students are mainly concerned being granted on the recommendation of the individual colleges.

This last fact permits very great latitude to the lecturers in the work they take and their method of treatment, for, though a departmental prescription exists for each subject, any reasonable equivalent is accepted. Our interest will be with history which is practically compulsory for all training college students. In at least two of the colleges, much has been done during the past five or six years to give a clear idea of the League of Nations and its work and to quicken the spirit of co-operation

in all human relationships. Evidence is not lacking that the seed has germinated even in what appeared sometimes to be stony ground.

There follows an outline of the two years' course that was studied in the Christchurch Training College at least till the end of 1928:

I. An outline of the main phases of European civilisation leading up to the foundation of the League of Nations, its character illustrated by its work.

II. European history in outline A.D. 1789 to 1919, following as main threads democracy, nationality, and the trend towards international organisation.

III. Economic development from the family unit to the world unit through specialisation and co-operation. Social and industrial problems. The economic and humanitarian work of the League. The international organisation.

IV. The expansion of Europe and the problems it has created:

(*a*) British policy towards tropical colonies. The mandate system.

(*b*) The evolution of the British Empire into a Commonwealth of Nations. The principles involved and their application in the League of Nations.

V. The historical background of present problems and trends in the Pacific.

VI. The problem of security:

(*a*) The armed peace, armaments and alliances, 1878-1914.

(*b*) The great war, and the peace treaties, 1914-1919.

(*c*) The League of Nations — security by co-operation.

It will be seen that the whole course was intended to focus attention on three great present problems of human welfare: (1) international relationships, (2) inter-racial contacts, and (3) socio-economic relationships — and to throw light on them from the historical background. "We look back in order to look forward", as Professor Delisle Burns says. The League of Nations was treated as a great attempt to solve all three

— open to criticism, but at least growing out of the experience of the past. It was often discussed from the angle of Dr. Zimmerman's statement in presenting his first report on Austrian reconstruction : " I believe I am working in harmony with the spirit of the age and the inevitable development of world history ".

Willis G. T. AIREY,
University College,
Auckland, New Zealand.

PART III.

Official Section.

SRINAGAR.

REPORT SUBMITTED BY M. L. DE FEO, DIRECTOR OF THE INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CINEMATOGRAPHIC INSTITUTE, TO THE SUB-COMMITTEE OF EXPERTS FOR THE INSTRUCTION OF YOUTH IN THE AIMS OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS.

It is now recognised that nothing is better fitted than the screen to promote a widespread knowledge of men and things or to serve the ends of propaganda, national or international.

Thirty years ago, the cinema was nothing more than a laboratory instrument ; it has since made progress exceeding the most sanguine expectations, and, with the aid of new technical processes, is strengthening its hold upon the public day by day. The silent play was of itself universal, since it could be staged everywhere with but one variation, the translation of the captions. With the advent of the " tone-film ", the screen's power of expression was further enhanced by an almost exact reproduction of all the sounds of nature and human life. In the simple " tone-film " stage, the cinema retained its general appeal, for song and harmony have existed from the earliest times in every country of the world,

The " talking film ", on the other hand, seemed likely, in its early stages — and owing to the expansion and ascendancy of the American industry — to revive the nationalist spirit of the various countries and to rob films of their universal appeal by narrowing down their scope to the limits of a single people in each case, according to the language used.

But, whilst technical experiments are being made with a view to providing one and the same film with synchronised speech reproduction in various languages, so that it may be screened everywhere and thus regain its universal character, the full force and effectiveness of the film have been preserved, thanks to its power of creating and representing any work of art.

The greatness of a work of art lies in this, that its language, whether luminous or plastic is universal and is felt, if not wholly understood, by all. It sets up a special bond of intimacy between the author and his audience, an intimacy created by the kinship between the sentimental appeal of his work and the emotional experiences of human life.

Unless, therefore, the production is poor, there can be no question, whatever the technique employed, of films being confined within the boundaries of a single nation. The cinema still remains, and will even more assuredly remain, what it has been, the most powerful instrument of universal knowledge ever imagined.

Hence the absolute need for supervision and regulation by strict laws, in order that it may be used to the best possible advantage.

Cinema statistics present figures which verge on the fantastic. The number of persons — mostly minors — who fill the cinema halls daily is some hundred million. The same film is simultaneously screened in New York, London and Tokio.

The first service that can be asked of young people, and of the committees set up to disseminate knowledge of the League's aims, is precisely that they should support the action of the League and of the

Rome Institute, in order that the cinema, whilst retaining its full artistic power, may be brought under international supervision and thus become a medium of propaganda for universal ideas.

From its very inception, the Rome Institute has resolutely taken this line. A first campaign was launched to have educational and scientific films fully emancipated from restrictions in all countries, regardless of frontiers, to stimulate the industry to the production of such films by exempting them from revenue duty, and to prevail on Governments and peoples to facilitate their exchange from country to country. The draft International Convention framed to that end has already passed through most of the stages of League procedure, and is now ready to be submitted to an International Conference which will translate into practice the idea we have mooted.

Another field in which we are active, and which is of special interest to young people, is that of censorship or, to be more precise, a form of world supervision exercised on uniform principles, if not on those points which bear directly on the life, customs and needs of any one nation, at least on certain essential points which should form the subject of international regulations.

The main object of the League of Nations is to ensure, in the best possible manner, mutual knowledge and understanding among nations, in order to establish international relations which will ensure permanent peace and the friendly settlement of disputes between nations.

One of the most dangerous features of the cinema, and one which calls most urgently for international rules, in order that friendship among nations may not be constantly jeopardised by actions depicted on the screen, lies in its power of representing the habits of life and thought of a people or nation with characteristic force of suggestion and far-reaching effects.

In such a case, the producer rarely proves wholly unbiased. Either on — invariably fallacious — grounds of political expediency, or in the belief that a distorted version or a misrepresentation of the life of others will prove an attraction to the public and will thus increase the receipts, or for other, unknown reasons that are not worth investigating, film producers seem at times to take pleasure in deliberately reproducing scenes from the seamy side of life, the side of life which it would be better to conceal or to eliminate.

Even when such a film is used as a medium for conveying the truth, and its presentation of the life of others is fundamentally accurate, it is none the less dangerous and inopportune, and does not contribute towards mutual knowledge and understanding among nations.

This kind of production needs very special qualities of tact, and might be said to require a nice feeling for international propriety and amenities. Where this feeling is lacking or where the producer thinks fit to disregard it, Governments should intervene with prohibitions or restrictions. In this, the action of the League and its attached institutions may be highly valuable, in bringing home a realisation of the true interests of communities, in making it understood that such things are not conducive to international progress, but that they set a gulf between nations and foster feelings of hatred and contempt.

The political and the cinema Press have, on many occasions, reported diplomatic protests and protests by private persons or by whole classes

against films which, on the pretext of screening particular aspects of the life of a given country, are nothing less than outrageous libels. Sometimes the resentment has been even fiercer, and has led to violent reprisals against the cinemas showing the objectionable films.

All this must cease if we really mean to establish harmonious relations between peoples ; it cannot be stopped except by the action of an international organisation which will focus attention on the exigencies of the situation and will invite the countries interested — and there is none which is not interested in this question — to lay down uniform rules bringing the cinema under the necessary supervision.

The worldwide and beneficent influence of the cinema as a means of culture, education and scientific instruction, falls in a very special sense within the problems of the Rome Institute.

The field of work thus opened up — that of showing everywhere what is being done by the organisations concerned in the field of hygiene, social welfare, labour and communications and in the economic and intellectual spheres ; that of demonstrating the possibilities of raising the moral standards of the masses and improving their conditions of life ; that of showing the technical methods adopted in the world to improve and expand agricultural and industrial production — has practically no limits except those of human and social life itself. In thus disseminating knowledge, the cinema establishes its status as a universal medium, contributes to mutual knowledge and understanding among nations and applies in full the fundamental principles of the League.

But there is something more. The work of the League itself, all that it has done and is still doing for the nations which founded it, its vast organisation to promote the welfare of mankind, the translation into practice of the underlying principles of its work, all this can be presented and explained on the screen better than by bulky volumes, which would doubtless not be lacking in interest but would be available only to the few.

The general public has only a very superficial knowledge of the achievements of the League. Newspapers give but occasional brief accounts of the work in its simpler aspects. Lecturers discuss it before small audiences, generally consisting of persons who are sufficiently well informed and educated to be acquainted with the fundamental aims of the League, and are consequently in no need of further instruction.

Wherever other means of propaganda and education are lacking, the cinema is well able to supply the need and to give all peoples of the world a complete and accurate account of the tremendous work the League has been, and is still, doing. The economic reconstruction of various countries ; social, political and humanitarian problems like that of the refugees ; the enquiries which are proceeding everywhere under the auspices of the League in order to combat disease, to solve labour problems — all this cannot be more effectively or more extensively illustrated than by the cinema.

A whole series of films could thus be created, which would be valuable as historical accounts and for purposes of record. By the mere fact of being presented on the screen, the various aspects of the work accomplished would be invested with general interest, would frequently acquire dramatic force and would always have a propaganda value.

This would be a propaganda of facts which would logically involve a propaganda of ideas, in the highest and noblest sense of the term, that is to say, in its international sense.

Such is the aim which, in the opinion of the Rome Institute, should be pursued by young people and by the committees set up to disseminate among them a knowledge of League principles ; such is the goal towards which the Institute, an organisation created by the League to investigate and to indicate the educational and scientific possibilities of the screen, has been striving from the outset.

The various branches of its work are tangible proof of this fact : hygiene, accident prevention, social welfare ; investigations into the use of the cinema in agriculture, in scientific management, in the rationalisation and improvement of production, in the dissemination of knowledge of technical industrial processes ; enquiries into the social and moral problems connected with the cinema ; enquiries with a view to associating the cinema with modern methods of teaching ; a campaign for the abolition of revenue duties on scientific and educational films ; and a comparative study of the various domestic laws on cinematograph censorship.

These few indications show that the Institute has an accurate and comprehensive view of the universal purposes of the film, and show how it proposes to fulfil them and, by fulfilling them, apply in the fullest possible manner, so far as it is concerned, the underlying principles of the work of the League.

This is a field of work in which the co-operation of all individuals or bodies who are working to the same end is needed. They may and should bring their practical contribution to our work. With the help of past and present experience we shall endeavour to attain to a comprehensive view of the problem, so that the cinema, retaining its universal character, may in future become more than ever the medium through which nations shall learn to know each other and the agency which shall bring them together through an increasingly accurate and complete mutual understanding.

EXCHANGE OF CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN THE SECRETARY-GENERAL OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS AND THE STATES MEMBERS.

Since the publication of the January 1930 issue of the *Educational Survey*, the official correspondence between the States Members of the League and the Secretary-General has consisted of a few communications concerning the general progress made in the instruction of young people in the aims of the League and of a large number of letters dealing with the arrangements for the distribution and translation into different languages of the text-book for teachers : " The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations ".

The following is a summary of the letters received concerning the instruction of youth :

INFORMATION RECEIVED FROM GOVERNMENTS SINCE JULY 1929.

Greece (Letter dated February 21st, 1930). — I have the honour to send you the following summary of the general principles adopted by the Ministry of Education and Public Worship at Athens to give teachers and pupils in Greek schools a better idea of the League of Nations. The introduction into the schools of a special handbook explaining the work of the League and the organisation of lectures are regarded as the best means of promoting and diffusing the ideals of Geneva.

School text-books should, as far as possible, be based on the principles which the League is endeavouring to carry into execution.

The suggestion has already been made that an annual school festival should be held in Athens in honour of the League ; it will shortly be discussed by the Education Committee.

The Ministry of Education also proposes to use the handbook, entitled " The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations ", in revising and reprinting a monograph in Greek on " The Aims, History, Organisation and Work of the League of Nations ", by Professor Socrates Kouyéas, of the University of Athens, a member of the Administrative Committee of the Greek League of Nations Association.

The monograph in question was published about five years ago at the Greek Government's expense.

In short, in everything connected with the dissemination through the teaching profession of the ideas of the League, the Greek Ministry of Education is working in close co-operation with the Greek Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which has its seat at the University of Athens, and with the Greek League of Nations Association.

Luxemburg. — Particulars are given of a programme for Armistice Day in the schools of the Grand-Duchy.

Persia. — In a letter of May 1930, the Persian Minister accredited to France informs the Secretariat that a lecture on the League to Persian students recently given in Paris by H.H. A. Khan Foroughi has been printed and distributed to the Press and university students and will be put at the disposal of Persian schools.

Yugoslavia. — Since 1927, in all schools of the Kingdom, a special lesson on the League of Nations is given annually by the competent teachers.

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With regard to the book " The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations ", it will be remembered that it was issued early in 1929 and published in several editions in English and French, a number of Governments ordering considerable stocks for distribution to their schools and educational libraries. Some months later, the League Secretariat brought out an edition in Spanish, which has been distributed and sold both in Spain and in the Spanish-speaking States of Latin America. In September 1929, the Tenth Assembly voted a special grant to cover the cost of reprints and translations of the brochure. A circular letter was consequently sent by the Secretary-General to the States Members informing them of the decision of the Assembly and the arrangements made to carry it out.

In order to make the best possible use of this grant, which amounts to 33,000 Swiss francs and is therefore not sufficient to meet unlimited demands, it was decided to employ it in the following manner :

1. For reprints in English and French, these issues being partly distributed free of charge to Governments who desired to obtain some hundreds of copies and partly put on sale;
2. For subsidising translations; the Secretariat stated that it was ready to pay for the translation into any language desired by a Government, provided that the printing of such translation was guaranteed;
3. In exceptional cases, for paying the cost of printing of certain translations if for financial or other reasons the national authorities were unable to undertake the work, and also in cases where one translation could be used in several countries.

Mention should first be made of certain States where action in regard to the text-book has been taken independently of the financial grant offered by the League. In Italy, the Netherlands and Sweden, the Governments have given subsidies to suitable bodies, either the League of Nations Association or the National Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which have translated and issued the text-book. The Italian and Swedish translations have already been published. The Lithuanian Government has informed the Secretariat of its decision to take the same action, and the Estonian and Greek authorities have used the book in completing or revising books on the League intended for teachers and written by their own nationals, while the Portuguese educational authorities are publishing translations of certain chapters.

With the help of a grant from the League fund to cover the expenses of translation and, in a few cases, part or the whole of the expenses of printing, translations have been completed or are actually being made into the following languages : Albanian, Bulgarian, Czech, Finnish, German, Hungarian, Latvian, Norwegian, Polish, Serb, Yiddish, Hebrew and Ukrainian, and, moreover, into Chinese, Japanese and Persian.

In addition, it should be noted that copies in the original English and French are used in a large number of countries, including some where one of these languages is generally known to teachers without being the national language of the country. Finally, it may be observed that arrangements are being made by a publisher in India to have the book translated into certain vernaculars.